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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this document is to assist the educational community in the development of positive school learning climates through the use of inservice teacher training programs and supportive classroom activities. The five exemplary, short-term seminars designed for school personnel by the Youth Advocacy Loop of the Teacher Corps are described in detail, specifically: (1) the "Administrative University" to help school principals develop individual discipline action plans; (2) the "I-Care" seminar to enhance the counseling skills of teachers; (3) the "Human Interaction Training" program to provide alternatives for dealing with disruptive behavior; (4) the "Alternative Learning Program," an in-school suspension program; and (5) the "Discussion Skills" project to acquaint students with the courtesies required of speakers and listeners. Additionally, an overview of the National Institute of Education's Safe School Study and the report of the California Commission for Reform of Intermediate and Secondary Education and a bibliography on classroom management are provided. (Author/HLM)

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POSITIVE
School Learning Climates

Vivienne Williams, Executive Secretary
Teacher Corps Youth Advocacy Loop

Edited by **Joan M. Krager**

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

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DEVELOPMENTAL TRAINING ACTIVITIES

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INTRODUCTION

The purpose in presenting this volume is to acquaint the educational community with successful activities that can be considered by administrators and teachers in their task of providing positive school learning climates. Much has been written recently about disruptive behavior in schools, particularly the violent and criminal aspects of that behavior. Our concentration is on models for inservice teacher training and supportive classroom activities which preclude many disruptive tendencies in adolescents by being vibrant, innovative, creative, and student centered.

The immediate impetus for compilation of this work came with the decision to provide short-term seminars for principals during the summer of 1979. That decision reflected the concern of Teacher Corps, and even more explicitly that of the Youth Advocacy projects of Teacher Corps, that the principal's leadership and the structure of order initiated by the principal be "firm, fair, and most of all consistent."[1] These characteristics, according to

[1]The National Institute of Education, *Violent Schools—Safe Schools: The Safe School Study Report to the Congress*, Vol. I (Washington, D.C.: GPO, 1979), p. 11.

the Safe School Study, distinguish safe schools from unsafe schools.

A safe—or positive—school climate is one in which all participating individuals are humanized so that the positive capacities of each contribute to the well-being of the whole social body. The student who is misunderstood or ignored becomes potentially disruptive in his isolation and in the tacit denial of his need for attention. The teacher who is overburdened with a heavy teaching load and unreasonable administrative directives will inevitably become discouraged and less than attentive to student needs. At the pinnacle, principals and other school administrators bear the brunt of the stress in having to assume ultimate responsibility for disciplinary actions and in maintaining cordial linkages with the community and the parents.

In preparation for the short-term seminars for principals, the Executive Secretary of the Youth Advocacy Loop organized materials drawn from the Safe School Study relating to school climate and integrated them with project descriptions of Youth Advocacy activities. The presentations of these materials to principals in regional seminars at Atlanta and Denver were received with an interest and enthusiasm which prompted their organization into a form appropriate to wider dissemination. Projects were invited to contribute other materials they had developed in order to round out the contents of the proposed volume. Some background on the exemplars which were collected and ultimately organized into the third part of this book follows.

Recognizing the variety of physical and emotional burdens placed upon administrators, the Teacher Corps Youth Advocacy project and the Public School System of Atlanta, Georgia, decided upon an innovative program launched in the summer of 1978. Workshops were held at that time to acquaint principals more completely with the disciplinary rules they were committed to enforce, to enable them to compare their disciplinary problems

with those faced elsewhere, and to help them withstand the pressures of their duties with the personal equilibrium and humanity so essential to providing role models for both students and teachers.

Elsewhere other Youth Advocacy projects were attacking other aspects of the problems of discipline and school climate. A needs assessment process conducted by the Teacher Corps staff at a Maine project site indicated a need for more effective communication and interaction skills among teachers to sort out patterns of disruptive behavior, some of which were found to be related to mainstreaming and integration. An inservice program to train teachers in counseling skills was the result of this discovery. Similarly, a project in Denver worked out a program of teaching human interaction skills to both teachers and students by adapting methods of working with youth in Colorado correctional facilities.

Concern with denying students their rights to education by disciplinary suspension from school led to cooperation between the Kanawha County Board of Education and the Youth Advocacy projects at two schools in Charleston, West Virginia, in establishing Alternative Learning Centers. This alternative strategy to out-of-school suspension involved denying social privileges to disruptive students without disturbing their educational program. It proved effective in demonstrating the importance of school climate to the disruptive students themselves.

To insure student participation in decisions affecting them, teachers in the Indianapolis School System and Teacher Corps staff members at Indiana University developed a manual to teach discussion skills. In addition to teaching the courtesies required of listener and speaker, the activities provided a democratic form for the expression of student opinion.

The foregoing are but a few of the activities of Teacher Corps Youth Advocacy projects, those which lent themselves to abridgement in the pages that follow. De-

scribing these activities briefly is perhaps the most direct way of acquainting readers with activities so characteristic of the Teacher Corps, but the more formal background which follows may be helpful to those not familiar with Teacher Corps itself or with the activities of the Youth Advocacy Loop of Teacher Corps.

Background and History

Teacher Corps became operational in 1966, under the auspices of the U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, as a direct consequence of the Higher Education Act of the preceding year. Its mandated purpose is to strengthen educational opportunities of children in schools having concentrations of low-income families and encourage broader programs of teacher preparation in colleges, universities, and local school districts. The current Teacher Corps Rules and Regulations specify four outcomes of Teacher Corps activities:[2]

- an improved school climate which fosters the learning of children from low-income families;
- an improved educational personnel development system for persons who serve or who are preparing to serve in schools for children of low-income families;
- the continuation of educational improvements (including products, processes, and practices) made as a result of the project, after federal funding ends;
- the adoption or adaptation of those educational improvements by other educational agencies and institutions.

A 1975 legislative amendment gave Teacher Corps authority to support demonstration projects. This resulted in an emphasis in the rules on documentation, demonstration, and institutionalization of improved educational practices, and the consequent shift in em-

[2]*Federal Register*, February 23, 1978.

phasis of program activities. In the same year that emphasis was shifted to demonstration and inservice training a confederation of projects within Teacher Corps, known as the "Youth Advocacy Loop," was formed. Each of the projects in the Loop sought to strengthen opportunities of "troubled youth who are currently ignored or 'pushed out' by the public school system,"[3] and each had direct or indirect contact with incarcerated youth, whether in the juvenile justice system, an alternative education program, or a youth service agency.[4] Program funds were provided for the establishment and maintenance of the Loop.

Concentrating on the needs and rights of educationally disenfranchised youth at the secondary school level, the Youth Advocacy projects seek to humanize the educational climate, to provide viable alternatives to adolescents with varied learning styles and with specific individual needs. Like the entire Teacher Corps organization of which it is a part, the Loop strives to anticipate and meet the need for continual educational reform. By exploring youths' perspectives on the deficiencies of their own social and educational milieus and by encouraging self-discipline, Youth Advocacy programs have taken on the challenge of retaining troubled youth in school settings rather than in other environments.

In pursuit of their goals to keep children in schools and to modify school climates toward this end, members of the Youth Advocacy Loop direct their activities to the following specific objectives:[5]

- developing and field-testing models that employ student-initiated activities as viable instructional strategies,

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[3]Clarence C. Walker, Foreword to *Youth Advocacy Projects Handbook* (Peninsula, Ohio: Loop Office, revised January 1979)

[4]*Teacher Corps Youth Advocacy Loop* (Peninsula, Ohio: Loop Office, March 1979), p. 5.

[5]Ibid., pp. 6-7.

- developing and disseminating curriculum models that are formed by interdisciplinary collaboration and utilizing the knowledge base found in law-focused education;
- modifying educational learning climates so that troubled youth have alternatives both to learning and sharing in educational decisions;
- creating broad educational programs that are designed to respond to the needs of adolescents in preparation for future parental roles;
- sharing in the collaborative planning for meeting the needs of adolescents who are drug and substance abusers;
- developing parallel courses of study between educational programs in correctional settings and the public schools as a method of facilitating re-entry procedures;
- working to modify teacher training programs so that they become relevant for teachers who work with troubled youth, especially in classroom management;
- developing techniques and working toward the creation of linkages for coordinated delivery of services.

Under the philosophy that has become an integral part of Teacher Corps, the Youth Advocacy Loop believes that our schools are the primary socializing agent for youth. They represent the institution in our society that provides "the first line of defense in changing behavior to combat crime, violence, and disposition to engage in chronically disruptive behavior."[6] As a socializing force, the school must deal equitably, with justice for the individual as well as for the majority.

The concept of Youth Advocacy was central to the cre-

[6]Clarence C. Walker, Foreword to *Student Initiated Activities: A Strategy in Youth Advocacy* (Teacher Corps Youth Advocacy Loop, University of Vermont, 1978), p. 1.

ation of Teacher Corps from the earliest Congressional mandate, "to provide relevant remedial, basic, and secondary educational training, including literacy and communication skills for juvenile delinquents, youth offenders, and adult criminal offenders."[7] Linkage with correctional institutions and the judicial system has intensified the activities of members of the Loop as change agents to effect school reform in the interest of retaining troubled youth. Essential and pervading is the attempt to create and assure a positive school climate through:

- creating a curriculum which will insure youth participation and individualization of student needs;
- minimizing organizational problems between administrators and teachers, and teachers and students;
- maintaining social control through effective internal communication.

Such activities are at the heart of the Teacher Corps mission—and they are at the heart of the Youth Advocacy mission.

[7]P.L. 94-482, Title V, Part A.

THE CHALLENGE TO TODAY'S SCHOOLS

Throughout their history America's public schools have been called upon to anticipate, shape, and respond to the needs, expectations, and demands of a rapidly changing society. They have done so with varying degrees of success.

On the plus side, they are largely responsible for the development of a labor force possessing levels of skill and intelligence which promoted the rapid advances that have been made in agriculture, industry, and business. They have been largely responsible for the fact that about one quarter of the population consistently moves up to higher levels of affluence than their parents. They have accommodated and educated millions of youngsters from diverse cultures, speaking different languages, and having different customs. And while focusing on society as a whole, they have also sought to serve their clientele as individuals, offering them opportunities to develop their own talents and pursue their own goals and interests.

The methods of schools were originally meritocratic in nature. Now schools seem to be responding to the chal-

lenge of also becoming egalitarian to meet changing societal needs and concerns. As recently as 1950 only about half of all white students and one quarter of all black students graduated from high school. Currently about 85% of whites and 75% of blacks complete high school.[1]

Interestingly, one study indicates that academic performance was slightly better in 1976 than thirty plus years ago, even though the more current scores represent a much wider range of student backgrounds than was the case in 1944.[2]

Women and minorities are now present in colleges in about the numbers they represent in the population at large. A Rand study indicates that increased years of schooling for blacks, combined with improvements in the quality of education, has had a major impact on their earning capacity.[3]

These and other successes notwithstanding, the American public school system has had dramatic failures. Numerous national studies and reports over the last ten years have highlighted the problems and some have made recommendations for future direction. The following sections include summaries of some of the major reports.

Between 1970 and 1973, the following indices of school crime were observed:[4]

- Vandalism cost the nation's schools $500 million annually.
- Burglaries of school buildings increased 36.7%.
- Robberies in school increased 36.7%.
- Assaults on teachers increased 77.4%.
- The confiscation of deadly weapons at school increased 54.4%.
- Rapes and attempted rapes increased 40.1%.
- Murders increased 18.5%.

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[1]Harold Hodgkinson, "What's Right with Education," *Phi Delta Kappan*, November 1979, pp. 159-62.

Recent statistics and projections substantiate this pattern of violence:[5]

- At a minimum, 157,000 cases of crime and disruption occur in American public schools in a typical month.
- Incidence rates per month for some of the crimes committed at schools are estimated to be:
  –9,000 trespasses occurring in 1 out of 9 schools,
  –11,000 breaking and enterings in 1 out of 10 schools,
  –13,000 thefts of school property in 1 out of 8 schools,
  –42,000 incidents of vandalism in 1 out of 4 schools,
  –2,000 thefts against secondary students (1 out of 9 students) and 128,000 thefts against teachers,
  –280,000 attacks against students (1 out of 75) and 5,200 attacks against teachers (1 out of 200).
- About 3 million secondary school students (16%) avoid at least three places in their schools because of fear and 3% of secondary school students are afraid *most of the time*.
- Approximately 125,000 secondary school teachers (12%) are threatened with harm each month.
- The annual cost of replacing and repairing school property lost or damaged as a result of school crime is about $200 million.

These problems, although somewhat more prevalent in the Northeast and West and in our nation's cities, are

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[2]Roger Farr and Leo Fay, *Then and Now: Reading Achievement in Indiana, 1944-45 and 1976* (Indianapolis, Ind.: Indiana Department of Public Instruction, 1977).

[3]Herbert Hyman, Charles Wright, and John Shelton Reed, *The Enduring Effects of Education* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1975).

[4]U.S. Senate Subcommittee to Investigate Juvenile Delinquency, *Our Nation's Schools–A Report Card* (Washington, D.C.: GPO, 1975).

[5]The National Institute of Education, *Violent Schools–Safe Schools: The Safe School Study Report to the Congress*, Vol. I (Washington, D.C.: GPO, 1979), pp. 74-75.

truly national in scope. So are many other problems which pervade the schools. It has been estimated that:[6]

- Two million school-age youth are out of school.
- One million youth, age 12 to 17, are illiterate.
- Over 500,000 youth are in juvenile detention and correctional facilities during the year, and almost 60,000 are there on given days. The majority have a history of retardation or failure in school.
- Youth between the ages of 10 and 17 account for 16% of the population but 45% of all arrests for serious crimes. The majority have a history of retardation or failure in school.
- 50.5% of all arrests for property offenses involve persons under the age of 18. The majority have a history of retardation and failure in school.
- Finally, over 1 million youth each year are accused of delinquent behavior. These youth also have a history of school failure.

School failure, along with broken homes, low socioeconomic status, high mobility, high density housing, and reduced tolerance of youthful behavior, has been demonstrated to be strongly correlated with delinquent behavior. Society has failed to provide many of its youth with relevant and effective schools. More significant, however, schools have failed most dramatically with troubled and disruptive youth, many of whom are routinely eliminated from the school environment through expulsion and incarceration.

Numerous recommendations for solving these problems have been suggested. Most involve a substantial restructuring of the schools. Two, NIE's Safe School Study and the RISE Report, are representative.

The Safe School Study

The Safe School Study[7] included eighteen general

[6]*The Results of National Assessment* (Washington, D.C.: National Center for Education Statistics, 1977).

steps which a school district might undertake to reduce the threat of crime and vandalism and improve school climate (see Exhibit 1). Schools are advised to assess the extent of their problems, highlight their findings, and make problem-solving their top priority. According to the report, schools have been successful in solving their problems when consensus and cooperation of all concerned, *as well as technical and financial assistance*, have been obtained. According to the study, safe schools were characterized by a legitimate and effective governance program including firm, fair, and consistent discipline and a structure of incentives which adequately rewards students for their efforts and achievements. The role of the principal was found to be essential, and it was recommended that principals be freed of some administrative duties so that they could spend more time with students and teachers. Other recommendations include additional preservice and inservice training for educational personnel, reduced class size, increased personalization, new courses, and the development of supportive relationships. The study further recommends implementation of security measures designed to prevent and reduce incidences of crime. While these suggested reforms are straightforward enough, the extent of schools' needs for technical assistance cannot be overemphasized.

Exhibit 1
Recommendations of the Safe School Study
The National Institute of Education, *Violent Schools–Safe Schools: The Safe School Study Report to the Congress*, Vol. I (Washington, D.C.: GPO, 1979), pp. 12-14.

I. [It was] found that while past increases in crime and violence have leveled off, there is abundant evidence of a problem requiring concerted action. In many respects school crime and violence stem from sources outside the school; but there are

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[7]The National Institute of Education, *Violent Schools–Safe Schools: The Safe School Study Report to the Congress*, Vol. I (Washington, D.C.: GPO, 1979).

steps which schools and school districts can take to reduce such problems.

1. *Crime and disruption in schools should be recognized as a significant problem, and the problem should receive the open attention and public concern it deserves.* In the course of the study, a tendency to understate or minimize the extent of the problem was sometimes evident. Progress toward solving a problem cannot be made until the problem itself is recognized.
2. *If a school district has reason to think that its schools may have a serious problem the dimensions of which are unclear, an assessment of the problem is in order.* Some of the methods and instruments developed in the course of this study are suitable for such an assessment, though they should be used with an awareness of their limitations. This approach can also provide detailed information valuable for planning purposes.
3. *If crime and disruption are serious problems in a school or school district, the priority given to the issue must be a primary one.* This may require some hard decisions about the relative value of other desirable goals and programs, although it is clear that educational goals cannot be achieved in an atmosphere of violence and disorder. Assigning a high priority to the issue also means that the district administration, backed by the board of education, should provide prominent, active support for efforts to deal with these problems.
4. *School districts and their communities should recognize that schools can do a great deal to reduce crime and disruption.* If the feeling that nothing can be done pervades a school, nothing is expected or demanded of students, faculty, or administrators. Yet we found that many schools have managed to control and reduce the incidence of crime and disruption through locally developed and initiated programs.
5. *While schools can and should do a great deal to reduce crime and disruption, an adequate program to deal with the problem requires the consensus, cooperation, and resources which can come only through local planning and coordination supplemented by financial and technical assistance.* Social policy is dependent on a measure of consensus among those groups that are affected by and have an effect on social problems. Such consensus begins with the iden-

tification of goals to be sought and the means of attaining them. In order to develop an effective program to make schools safe, it is necessary that interested parties in the communities—including parents, social agencies, the police, the courts, and others—join together to plan and implement such programs. Other financial resources and expertise should be available as a supplement to, but not a substitute for, local policymaking and planning.

II. A system of governance providing an equitable structure of order characterizes schools which are working and seems to differentiate safe schools from those which are having problems. Student commitment to the school is an important factor in the safety of schools.

6. *Seriously affected schools should give particular attention to the establishment of legitimate and effective governance programs.* Such programs involve at least two things: (1) firm, fair, and consistent discipline; and (2) a structure of incentives (such as grades and honors) which adequately rewards students for their efforts and achievements. Attention should be given to rewarding diverse kinds of accomplishments (including individual improvement) and to broadening the availability of rewards.
7. *Schools and their communities should recognize that the role of the principal is important to the success of any school, but that it is the key in schools which are seriously affected by crime and disruption.* Seriously affected schools require principals who have strong leadership and administrative abilities. Recruitment and selection of such principals is essential. Attention should be given to the career ladder for assistant principals and to their movement into principalships. Specialized training of principals is also needed both in graduate schools and afterwards. Apprenticeships with principals who have demonstrated success in leadership of difficult schools is one method of training. Given the usual qualities required for this job, incentives should be available to keep talented principals in the schools that need them most.
8. *Communities and their school districts should provide the resources necessary to enable principals in seriously affected schools to exercise a leadership role vis-a-vis students as well as teachers.* In practical terms, this might mean providing the principal with the assistance necessary to take care of some of the routine business of school ad-

ministration, leaving the principal free to spend more time with students and teachers. The importance of the principal as a role model for students was evident in the study. Leading by example, putting in long hours, and being visible and available were essential activities. To maintain this posture requires that principals not delegate the functions of educational leadership and maintenance of discipline to others in order to carry out the routine administrative tasks which are part of the job.

9. *Teachers and other school personnel require pre- and in-service training for making schools safe.* While the principal seems to be a key element in establishing and maintaining a governance system which produces a safe school, the teachers, their relations with the administration, and their abilities in classroom management are also of considerable importance. Many teachers report that "we weren't prepared for this" when they relate the problems they encounter in schools which have serious problems with crime and disruption. For teachers in seriously affected schools, intensive training in classroom management, perhaps provided in the summer, can be an important means of increasing their skills.
10. *Communities and their school districts should increase the number of teachers in schools which are having serious problems with crime and disruption.* Classrooms are the safest places in school, and smaller classes are associated with decreased incidence of crime and disruption. One response for a school which is having problems is to increase the number of teachers per pupil.
11. *Consideration should be given to ways of increasing the "personalization" of secondary schools.* School size, student anonymity, and alienation seem to be factors in school crime. The principal's accessibility and lower student-teacher ratios should help "personalize" larger schools. Increasing the amount of continuous class time that a teacher spends with a given group of students would: (1) increase personal contact with students; (2) in junior highs, ease the transition from elementary schools; and (3) reduce traffic in the halls.
12. *Seriously affected schools should provide more relevant courses to students, especially those who are alienated and "turned off" by school.* The perceived lack of relevance is associated with apathy and violence in schools. This is an

old problem, but not an intractable one. Voluntary alternative schools and programs, many of which have a good track record with such students, should be considered as one approach.

13. *Relationships between the administration and teachers, among teachers, and between the school and the school system are important in producing safe schools and should be supportive in dealing with the problem.* "Down the line support" from the board of education and central administration to the classroom was a frequently mentioned necessity for school safety. The support of communities and parents can also help. Within the school, supportive attitudes toward students can help to contribute to a school climate which makes positive identification with the school, or "school spirit," more likely to develop.

III. Security measures and procedures can be helpful in reducing violence and property loss in schools, provided they are not used as a substitute for effective governance. In the absence of adequate leadership and student commitment to the school, security measures can become just another challenge to youngsters bent on attacking the school of other students.

14. *School systems with serious problems of violence and vandalism can benefit from the hiring of additional security personnel. The recruitment and training of such personnel should emphasize interpersonal skills as well as security functions.* Security personnel can be effective in reducing crime and disruption in schools. Since they often function as peacekeepers and sometimes counselors, they should be recruited and trained to be able to fulfill these roles properly.
15. *Schools experiencing serious problems should give special attention to surveillance and traffic control in areas such as hallways, stairwells, and cafeterias, where violence and disruption are most likely to start.* Hallways especially may be strategic locations in troubled schools. The better a principal is able to control them, the better the chances of restoring order to the school. The more adult hall monitors available, the better the chances of controlling the halls.
16. *Schools and school systems should move to improve recordkeeping and reporting of serious problems to the police and other appropriate agencies.* Many systems have requirements for the reporting of incidents, but they are often not followed. School districts facing serious problems of vandalism and violence should review these requirements

and, having done so, enforce them. It may be helpful to consult police in formulating guidelines for when they should and should not be called. The establishment and maintenance of recordkeeping systems and the development of reporting guidelines should be undertaken by school systems to ensure uniformity of recording and reporting.

17. *Schools and school systems in which crime is a problem should coordinate their efforts with those of local courts.* While local courts are central to the administration of juvenile justice, the schools express very little confidence in them. The schools and courts should work together to plan and coordinate their activities with regard to juvenile (and school-age adult) offenders.
18. *Schools and school systems should select security devices with care and with reference to their special needs.* There are a great number of such devices available, and they vary in utility and reliability. Principals' responses indicate that security devices in general can be effective, but schools seeking such devices and systems should also seek advice on which ones to acquire and how they may best be used. Advice from school districts which have used them can be helpful (many large city districts have), and information on their testing and certification is available from various sources.

The RISE Report

After thorough examination of the problems faced by California Schools, members of the California Commission for Reform of Intermediate and Secondary Education (RISE) also emphasized the need to focus the attention of *all* those concerned with the upbringing of youth on the solution of problems related to their education. Their recommendations included the following:[8]

- Affirm the learner as the primary client of the school. This means that learners should be permitted to

[8]*Report of the California Commission for Reform of Intermediate and Secondary Education* (Sacramento: California State Department of Education, 1975), pp. 7, 14-18 passim.

make progressively more educational choices and participate in the definition of their own rights and responsibilities.

- Require demonstrated proficiency in achieving essential skills and other learning outcomes as a prerequisite to progress in an educational program.
- Provide learners with an increased range of choices for instructional programs, learning styles, location, and time of learning.
- Provide increased personalized learning.
- Emphasize present *and* future needs, the development of human values, and aesthetic experiences in the curriculum.
- Provide opportunities for learners to acquire skills related to decision-making, cooperation, and understanding of others.
- Make available opportunities for career awareness, exploration, and preparation.
- Prepare learners to use leisure time in a personally rewarding manner.

In addition to these comprehensive goals for increasing and improving the educational experiences provided for youth, the Commission also recommended major reforms in the responsibilities, training, required performances, and assignments of educators, as well as in the relationships among educators and learners. The Commission recommended that:[9]

- Staff support and promote personalized learning.
- Counseling and advice be directed toward assisting learners to acquire a positive self-image.
- Institutions of higher education provide early screening, systematic training, and careful certification of preservice educational personnel.
- State licensing procedures be reviewed and improved.

[9]Ibid., pp. 20, 22-24 passim.

- School systems develop cooperative selection and review procedures for staff.
- Procedures for evaluating and dismissing educators be simplified and improved.

The RISE Report also identified a need for new and better managed resources and for a clear establishment of responsibility for reform. Among the needs specified are predictable funding levels, effective use of community resources, regular program evaluation, collaborative decision-making, aggressive public information programs, and collaboration among local schools and institutions of higher education.

The RISE Report is probably the most comprehensive of the efforts of states to analyze the changes needed in their educational systems. It is similar to the Safe School Study in that both incorporate broad goals for institutional renewal and reform. In both cases, *the achievement of goals for reform of school and schooling requires that educational planners and other personnel possess a broad range of skills, many of which they do not currently have.* Furthermore, a high level of commitment and participation is required from among many groups whose members are not typically active in planning and implementing educational policy. Implementation of any actions designed to achieve these goals also requires considerable resource commitment and technical assistance to local educational agencies.

A most important factor, not to be overlooked, is that most organizations and institutions do not reform themselves. An external source is vital to be the catalyst and perhaps serve other roles—such as solution-giver, agent, process-helper, etc.

Studies of need, whether statistically based like the Safe School Study or based, like the RISE Report, on an analysis of the educational environment by its participants, stimulate problem awareness. Additional steps must be taken if these reports are also to stimulate prob-

lem solution. Most important among these steps is the development of the necessary problem-solving skills and competencies among those who face the problems on a day-to-day basis and others who are concerned.

National Panel on High School and Adolescent Education

"The American high school requires orderly reform." So concluded the National Panel on High School and Adolescent Education in its 1976 report, which raises fundamental questions about the high school's contemporary role and ability to perform its comprehensive functions, including:[10]

- What are the major achievements and/or shortcomings of the nation's high schools?
- How are high schools meeting or failing to meet individual and societal needs?
- In what new directions should the high school move?
- What role should the federal government play in facilitating change?

An essential feature of the report is the conviction that the high school has become overburdened and should share its responsibilities for youth with other agencies in the community. Major criticisms of the high school include its inability to meet individual needs while trying to reach all students; manifest unrest characterized by vandalism, violence, drug abuse, and racial conflict; and inadequate preparation of students for additional education or gainful employment. While the rhetoric of high school educators praises innovation, diversity, creativity, and change, traditional patterns persist. The emphases remain on maintaining the organization, housing students in an orderly fashion, and holding costs to a reasonable level.

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[10]*Report of the National Panel on High School and Adolescent Education* (Bronx, N.Y.: H. W. Wilson Company, February 1978).

The Panel recommends shifting the emphasis from the *comprehensive school* toward *comprehensive education*, arguing that the confines of one building are no longer adequate to contain all the valuable and necessary experiences for today's young person. Formal education requires diversity sufficient to reflect the variety of experiences which living in today's world demands. If a goal of formal educational institutions is the creation of the best learning environment, then education must ask, "What are the best situations in which learning can take place?" not "How do we fit such learning situations into the school?"

The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice

Another 1970's study, the report of the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice,[11] places a high priority on the need for educational personnel adequately trained to meet the needs of socially, culturally, and economically disadvantaged youths. The report points out that those who become involved in delinquency and crime frequently have a history of failure in school caused or compounded by the inability of many schools to interest students and by the tendency to ignore or push out those who fail or cause disruptions. Thus, incarcerated youthful offenders are particularly likely to be not only far behind in school, but also to associate education with their failure and rejection.

Troubled youth represent a major problem area for high schools and community agencies. These young adults are generally failed first by the schools and then by the criminal justice system. Evidence seems to indicate that legal and/or medical interventions are ineffective or counterproductive. This situation stems from a

[11] *Report of the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice* (Washington, D.C.: National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals, January 1973).

lack of understanding about what factors in these systems affect the psychological and social well being of children. There is evidence, however, that labeling, institutional degradation for failure, and ambiguous responses to problems are detrimental to troubled youth served by either the school or the legal system.[12]

A major trend at present is to divert youth in trouble from the juvenile justice system, frequently to the schools. The school, therefore, must improve its response to these youths since educational success has been found critical to rehabilitation. Traditional means of dealing with troubled youth (i.e., exclusion, rejection, ignoring, etc.) must be replaced by acceptance, individual program planning, and new teacher-learner relationships. The schools and the juvenile justice systems must be viewed not as opposing systems, but as partners in providing community services to youth.

Children Out of School in America

One of the most widely publicized and acclaimed studies was done by the Children's Defense Fund in 1974, *Children Out of School in America*. This study found that there were at least two million school-age children out of school in America based on census data.[13] Further, it was generally thought that this only reflected the surface of the problem. Not included in this number were:[14]

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[12]For example: Kenneth Polk and W. E. Schafer, *Schools and Delinquency* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1972); W. E. Schafer and Kenneth Polk, "Delinquency and the Schools," in *The Task Force Report: Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Crime* (Washington, D.C.: 1967); David F. Greenberg, "Delinquency and the Age Structure of Society," and Arthur Pearl, "Towards a General Theory of Valuing Youth," both in Arthur Pearl, Douglas Grant, and Ernst Wenk, eds., *The Value of Youth* (Davis, Calif.: Responsible Action, 1978), pp. 55-57 and 21-23.

[13]Children's Defense Fund of the Washington Research Project, Inc., *Children Out of School in America* (Cambridge, Mass.: Children's Defense Fund, October 1974), p. 33.

[14]Ibid., p. 2.

- The hundreds of thousands of children expelled and suspended and otherwise thrown out of school for disciplinary reasons.
- The countless truants who elude census enumerators and school officials alike.
- The many children whose parents do not understand English and who therefore did not correctly answer the census nonenrollment questionnaire.
- The handicapped children and pregnant girls who are listed as receiving home or alternative instruction even though we know in many instances that this is tantamount to being effectively deprived of schooling.
- The parents who do not admit to strangers that their children do not go to school. If any penalty or shame is attached to the question, truthful reporting is sure to be a problem. Truancy, pregnancy, disciplinary suspension or expulsion, extreme poverty, mental retardation, emotional illness or learning disabilities, inability to speak English, key reasons that keep children out of school, are not readily offered to an interviewer.
- The approximately 85,000 children in detention and other institutions who were not considered enrolled according to the census definition. These children, as well as those who were considered enrolled, are often engaged in programs of such limited educational quality and quantity as to amount to nothing.

A further analysis indicated that this only refers to those youngsters who were physically not in school. Not counted were the far greater numbers of children technically in school who benefit little or not at all. They are the functionally or partially excluded children who may remain in schools and learn little or nothing. This group includes:[15]

[15]Ibid.

- The non-English speaking children who sit uncomprehendingly in classrooms conducted in English.
- The handicapped children who have not been diagnosed, have been misdiagnosed, or who have been placed in inappropriate classes where they do not learn.
- The children from whom little is expected and who are allowed to graduate from high school with markedly limited skills. (Results of the National Assessment of Educational Progress indicate that about 20% of children in school do not acquire the skills and knowledge taught in the primary grades and are left unprepared to progress either in school or toward responsible adulthood.)

Exhibit 2 charts the children who are out of school.

The report demonstrated that school exclusion is a major national problem. It showed that certain groups of children are singled out discriminatorily because they are different by virtue of their color, poverty, language,

Exhibit 2
Children out of School in America
Adapted from Children's Defense Fund of the Washington Research Project, Inc., *Children Out of School in America* (Cambridge, Mass.: Children's Defense Fund, October 1974), Chapter 1.

Category	*Description*	*Specifications*
Unknowns	There are some children who have never gone to school. Their parents or guardians do not register them, and school officials do not try to find out how many of them there are.	• Special needs children, particularly the severely mentally and physically handicapped • Immigrant children • Migrant children • Alaskan and other Native American children who live in remote areas and have no local schools, and whose parents refuse to send them to boarding schools far away from home

Exhibit 2 (continued)

Category	*Description*	*Specifications*
Excluded	There are other children who have tried to enroll at some time but who were not accepted by the school system. They want to be in school, but are told by school officials that it is not the place they should be.	• Children who register too late in the school year • Incontinent children or those with spina bifida • Children whom school officials deem "immature" • Older children who try to enroll for the first time in a new school district • Children on waiting lists for special programs • Special needs children for whom there are no appropriate programs, particularly the physically, mentally, and emotionally handicapped, and non-English-speaking or bilingual children • Children who are beyond normal transportation routes in remote rural areas • Children in jails
Pushouts	Some children have been enrolled in school, but later are forced to leave because of overt or covert school policies.	• Pregnant girls, school-age mothers, and married students • Expelled or suspended children • Dropouts • Dropouts who want to re-enroll and are not permitted to do so • Older children who are counseled or encouraged to withdraw. For example, parents are told to keep children at home on threat of court referral or told "we'll notify you when child can return," with no intention to readmit. • Children who cannot afford textbook and other school fees • Hyperactive and other children who are told to stay out of school until diagnosed, medically or otherwise, or for whom drugs may be prescribed • Children who have come into contact with the law or who have been in training schools but seek to return to public school • Children 16 or over compulsory attendance ages • Children who fall within compulsory attendance exemptions

Exhibit 2 (continued)

Category	*Description*	*Specifications*
Partially Excluded	Still other children officially are receiving educational services, but programs are so inadequate that they make a sham of the state's responsibility to provide schooling to all children.	• Children provided periodic homebound instruction or tutors • Children suspended from buses or extracurricular activities • Children who are misclassified and placed in inappropriate classes or special programs • Special needs children whose conditions are unidentified or unmet • Children in training schools, mental or other institutions with inadequate educational facilities and programs • Ignored truants
Rejected	And there are those children who are disliked, unwanted, and otherwise psychologically harassed and rejected. Schools may not have overt policies excluding them, but they ignore their personal or family problems, and do little to make the educational experience a rewarding one for these children.	• Minority children in desegregated schools or majority white schools: the racial pushouts • Bilingual children in hostile environments • Migrant children • Pregnant girls or unwed mothers • Children who have been labeled "troublemakers" by a number of teachers • Poor children with few clothes or no money for school activities • Children who are not expected to achieve academically and are therefore not taught well • Special need children • Children who have to comply with special rules, e.g., bringing a parent to school after suspension as a precondition for readmission

or handicap. A series of recommendations was set forth to "correct" the inequity, including the following:[16]

- The suspension of students from school should be stopped. State and local school officials should immediately examine their school discipline policies

[16]Ibid., pp. 9-10.

and practices in light of the interests of children and of good educational sense. The use of expulsion, suspension, and other disciplinary exclusions should be curtailed except where serious danger of harm to persons or property exists. Fair hearings in these latter emergency cases should be held prior to or within 24 hours of the exclusion. Exclusions should last only as long as the danger persists. In-school alternatives should be devised to keep children with discipline problems in schools. Alterna tive educational approaches should also be more fully explored and implemented to avoid many of the behavior problems that now result in exclusion.

- State educational officials should provide (1) model discipline codes and (2) technical assistance to aid local districts revising discipline policies. To ensure enforcement, states should adopt regular local district reporting requirements whose results are used in furtherance of an established state goal for school attendance by all children.
- State and local compliance efforts should be undertaken to ensure that racial discrimination is eliminated from school discipline and special education placement processes. Local education officials should provide leadership in requesting all the help necessary from their legislatures or elsewhere to ensure their ability to meet the needs of all children.
- School officials should undertake specific and continuing outreach efforts to involve parents in important school decisions affecting their children. These include disciplinary and other exclusions and special education testing and placement.
- Parents and children must inform themselves about and involve themselves in challenging school policies which exclude children from school. They should (1) question all school decisions which result in exclusion; (2) seek to work constructively with school officials to resolve the problem threatening

exclusion; (3) keep careful records of all conversations with school officials; and (4) where appropriate, contact higher school officials, state and federal governmental agencies, and advocates who may help.

- Parents and children should seek to work responsibly with school officials on policies and practices in districts which keep children from attending school. Only when we break down the chasms that separate us one from the other, teacher from parent, administrator from teacher, children from adults, will the problems addressed here be eliminated.

Giving Youth a Better Chance

Most recently, another major report was published, *Giving Youth a Better Chance: Options for Education, Work and Service*, which fully supports and builds on the previously mentioned reports.

The Carnegie Council, mostly concerned with higher education, became convinced that they must give serious consideration to the severely competitive labor market and school problems facing youth, particularly minority group youth in inner cities. This conclusion was based on the following considerations:[17]

- There are serious inequities between the increasing resources devoted by our society to young people enrolled in higher education and the much less adequate resources allocated to those who do not enroll in college.
- Talent is lost to higher education and to society because of societal circumstances that push or pull potentially talented young people out of the educational stream at too early an age.

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[17]The Carnegie Council on Policy Studies in Higher Education, *Giving Youth a Better Chance: Options for Education, Work and Service* (San Francisco, Calif.: Jossey-Bass, 1979).

- Society must be increasingly concerned with the qualifications and motivation of non-college youth entering occupations that require college training; to paraphrase John Gardner: in the excellence of its plumbers as of its philosophers.
- The costs to society of unemployment and delinquency among youth, as well as of lifelong patterns of unemployment and criminal activity among adults who get a poor start in life, are a drain on societal resources for other purposes including support of higher education.
- Some institutions of higher education, notably community colleges, are increasingly involved in manpower programs for non-college youth. There is also a strong case for closer linkages than now exist between occupational education and work experience programs for both secondary and post-secondary students.
- More generally, the relationships between secondary education and higher education should be a continuing concern of institutions of higher education. One of the special reports issued by the Council's predecessor, the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, entitled *Continuity and Discontinuity* (1973), was concerned with these relationships.
- Higher education is responsible for training teachers, and there is much evidence that necessary changes in teacher education have lagged behind changing societal needs.
- Some successful experiences in higher education may be applicable to secondary education, such as work-study programs, basic educational grants to cover the subsistence costs of needy students, cooperative education programs, occupational placement centers, and the encouragement of diversity within and among institutions.

- The fact that the size of the teenage population will be declining in the 1980's creates an opportunity for increasing the resources devoted to non-college youth, especially the disadvantaged, without increasing total expenditures (in constant dollars) on youth.
- Recent moves to expand manpower programs for youth are to be commended, but these are in large part rescue operations aimed at youth who have dropped out of school or who have gained little benefit from school. We are concerned about the need for more attention to the trade-off between adequate resources devoted to in-school youth and rescue operations for out-of-school youth.

They offer a set of social policy recommendations along with the conviction that there has been a plentitude of criticism of youth but a paucity of action to aid youth constructively. Below are those recommendations most relevant to schools:[18]

- Make age 16 the age of free choice to leave school, take a job, enter the military service, enter other forms of service, continue in school, enter college, enter an apprenticeship. In particular, we see no clear need for compulsory attendance in school after age 16. At age 21, young persons should be as fully on their own as possible. Special help and the sense of dependency it fosters should not go on indefinitely.
- Change the basic structure of high schools by making them smaller or by creating diversity within them or both; by creating full-time specialty schools, particularly for the grades 11 and 12; by creating part-time specialty schools—one or two days a week per student on a rotating basis—and providing one

[18]Ibid.

or two days a week for education-related work and/or service. We must find ways to break up the big monolithic high school and its deadly weekly routine. We believe that instruction in basic skills and general knowledge can be concentrated without loss of achievement in three effectively used days per week.

- Create work and service opportunities for students through the facilities of the high schools, making performance part of the student record. We also favor a renewed emphasis on student out-of-class activities.
- Stop the tracking of students; all programs should be individualized programs.
- Put applied skill training in private shops (with the exception of clerical skills and home economics), when not moved to the postsecondary level. The basic vocational (and academic) skills for the high school to concentrate on are the skills of literacy and numeracy—and good work habits.
- Finance needy students through work-study programs and more effective efforts to place them in jobs.
- Create job preparation and placement centers in the high schools that will follow students for their first two years after graduation or other termination.
- Improve the capacity of secondary schools to teach basic skills by allocating more federal funds under the Elementary and Secondary Education Act to secondary schools. We strongly support the "Push for Excellence" program led by Reverend Jesse Jackson.
- Encourage earlier entry from high school into college and more programs combining the last year or two of high school with college.
- Experiment with vouchers and greater freedom of choice, particularly among public schools. Bureauc-

ratic controls have not assured quality; competition to survive may.

These reports and numerous others highlight the shortcomings of the public education system in the United States. It may be, in the words of Patricia Graham, former director of the National Institute of Education, "an organizational nightmare but a functional triumph."

Apparently the schools have been successful in accomplishing one task while being expected to do others—and have not been so successful. There seems to be no question that persons regularly emerge from their encounters with it more knowledgeable than when they entered it; and it is in large part responsible for America's intellectual leadership in the world. The fact is also clear that the schools have not served all children and all sections of our population equally and that there still exist remnants of old practices geared to an earlier time when the schools' function was quite different, i.e., sorting, grading and tracking, limited access to success, forcing a passive role on students, all of which stigmatize and brand many as incompetent, place restrictions on students' chances for academic and occupational success, and make them vulnerable to the imposition of possibly irresponsible authority.

Needed Reform

The newly published U.S. Office of Education report, *The Urban High School Reform Initiative*,[19] makes recommendations as to strategies for reform. Five major themes seem to surface:

- fostering collaborative decision making (involving clients in a partnership);
- development of diverse learning environments;

[19] U.S. Office of Education, Department of Health, Education and Welfare, *The Urban High School Reform Initiative: Final Report* (Washington, D.C.: GPO, September 1979).

- networking and coordinated services around the school;
- management and school finance reform;
- research and dissemination utilization.

Each strategy is briefly summarized in the report. These summaries are presented in Exhibit 3.

The 1970's produced numerous directives for school improvement. Implementation of those directives to make schools more responsive and thereby serve the needs of society more satisfactorily will take time and will be accomplished only by a combination of events, including legislative enactment and the development of new training modes and approaches.

The following section of this book contains a random sampling of exemplars which share the common theme of improving the school climate. They are concerned with discipline and self-discipline, with communication and humanizing personal relationships, and with student involvement in educational processes.

Exhibit 3
Summaries of Strategies for Reform from The Urban High School Reform Initiative
U.S. Office of Education, Department of Health, Education and Welfare, *The Urban High School Reform Initiative: Final Report* (Washington, D.C.: GPO, September 1979).

Summary: Shared Decision-Making

Decisions that directly affect school programs should be made at the school site. Representatives of school constituencies—students, parents, school staff and key community groups—must share site decision-making power to set school specific policies, tailor programs to school site needs and allocate school site budgets according to those priorities. Two low-cost strategies necessary for shared decision-making are:

- School site council; and
- School site budgeting.

School Site Councils: To work effectively, these councils need:

- Authority and responsibility clearly designated by school board policy;

Exhibit 3 (continued)

- Technical assistance for start up; to identify constituent groups and select/elect representatives; to train council members; and to acquaint school and community groups with site council purposes;
- Members that are truly representative—and represent—the diverse concerns and expectations of their constituencies;
- Principal commitment to sharing decision-making power;
- Training for all council participants to develop group decision-making skills and knowledge of legal and educational issues salient to school site management; and
- Mechanisms for ongoing operation—to implement and publicize council policies; to select members in such a way as to ensure continuity of participation; and to evaluate and adjust council format as needed.

Generally, urban school systems already employ central office administrators capable of giving needed technical assistance to individual schools. These support personnel could be detailed to individual schools to assist principals and other site council planners during the initial planning and implementation stages. Consequently, this strategy will cost very little. Schools, however, could benefit greatly.

School Site Budgeting: Principals need lump sum budgeting at the site level or substantial discretionary funds to guarantee that site priorities can be funded. To work effectively, the following criteria must be met:

- school boards must adopt a school site budgeting model and develop a clear accountability system to monitor site allocation of funds;
- principals must have sign-off on site funds where appropriate; and
- principals and other site and district office budget managers need training in site budgeting.

Decentralization of district budgets to allow site flexibility and site trade-offs is being tried with success in many school systems. Educational leaders have learned that, in these times of decline, allowing school communities to make tough budget trade-offs makes good sense—for political as well as education reasons.

Summary: Diverse Learning Environments

A variety of learning experiences ought to be routine for *all* students, not relegated to the few who are either too smart or too incorrigible to be dumped into classrooms five or six hours daily. Options should be fully funded and included in the curriculum mainstream.

Exhibit 3 (continued)

No one best model is needed. Rather, *local schools*, preferably through site council discussions, must design *school-specific plans* to diversify the learning environment.

The local school community must carefully rethink:

- Program Development; and
- Professional Development.

Program Development: Educators must expand their notions of when, where and how urban secondary education can best be carried out. Seven essential areas that require new emphases and expanded options are:

1. Program Needs Assessment
2. Flexible Structures
3. Relevant Curricula
4. Integrated Counseling Services
5. Incentives for Students
6. Evaluation of Students
7. Evaluation of Programs

A diversified educational program should be one that builds on the strengths of the urban environment: multicultural student populations; distinctive neighborhoods; concentrations of highly trained professionals; and a wealth of economic, social and cultural resources.

All new options should emphasize maximum skill development. Career preparation experiences and community-based work and study options for school credit should be part of each student's secondary school experience.

Program planners should take care to inventory existing resources in the community that could add meaningful education and counseling experiences to the school program. School structures should then be adjusted to maximize these resources.

Schools with a wide variety of programs in varying times and locations can offer far greater incentives to their diverse multicultural student populations.

Professional Development: Educational professionals need new skills. The technology of their fields, whether administration, teaching or counseling, has changed drastically in recent years. The needs of the student population and parent and community expectations about schooling have, too.

Professional development programs, designed by and for school-level staff, must be an integral part of the diversification plan. Three areas need re-emphasis:

1. Management training
2. Staff training

Exhibit 3 (continued)

3. Staff incentives

Good schools need good principals. The challenges of leading complex urban schools through a time of decline demand sophisticated skills that many educational administrators do not get. Principals need help in: human relations, educational law, labor negotiations, site budgeting, energy management, evaluation techniques and public relations.

The school staff needs infusions of new ideas and techniques and new incentives to up-grade skills. They need retraining in multicultural education, adolescent skill development, affective education, career preparation, experiential studies, stress reduction and positive motivational activities. Teachers must learn to improve compensatory education techniques for secondary students without compensatory education standards. Counselors must improve career counseling skills. They need to become familiar with stress reduction techniques for both students and staff colleagues. Both groups ought to have training in using school volunteer help effectively and should learn to recognize student skills and integrate them into special tutorial and peer counseling projects.

This kind of professional development can best occur at the site level with colleagues who face similar problems. An ongoing professional development program must be included in the site council needs assessment and long-range plan. Most activities should take place during the work day, at school. Longer conferences or retreats are important, but only as an adjunct to school level sessions.

Teaching in inner city schools is, by all accounts, the toughest kind of teaching. Workplace stress costs these schools their best staff. Junior and senior high personnel are burning out at alarmingly high rates. To a growing number the traditional incentives of paychecks, union benefits and tenure are not enough.

Bold new incentives and reward systems are central to keeping good teachers in urban secondary schools. Drastic improvement in the school workplace is the first, and major, incentive for teachers.

The final decisions on what may or may not work ought to be decided by the local school community. They are the ones, after all, who are left with mediocrity when the best burn out.

Summary: School Community Development

Schools cannot afford to set themselves apart from the communities that they serve. The failures of public education have won prime time publicity just when voters are actively expressing discontent with public institutions—schools especially. Taxpayers want schools to do a much better job of educating teenagers. Schools, however, should

no longer count on extra dollars to do so. Urban educators and communities must call a truce in their current accountability wars and get on with a mutual, and realistic, agreement about who can do what to make junior and senior high schooling for urban teenagers much, much better.

These discussions should focus on two areas in need of improvement:

- Networking; and
- Coordinated Youth Services.

Networking: A first step is to rebuild ties to neighborhoods and break down the barriers, both real and perceived, that inhibit community-school exchanges. Strong networks that link the public school to parents, business, labor, industry, cultural agencies, private schools, higher education and community organizations must be carefully woven. These networks must provide continuous interchange between the schools and the public.

Eight areas crucial to networking are:

1. Public Relations
2. Incentives for Outreach
   a. Reimbursement/tax credit
   b. Federal/State Convening Authority
3. Parent/Volunteer Involvement
4. Business/Labor/Industry Supports
5. Cultural Agency Ties
6. Public/Private School Cooperation
7. Higher Education Supports
8. School Facility Use

All eight emphasize an open door policy initiated by the schools themselves. Ongoing dialogue should alert communities of the crucial needs and successes of their schools and let them know specifically how outsiders can help. Incentives for community involvement—particularly for parents and school volunteers—must stem from genuine desire on the part of school personnel to use the extensive resources of the urban community to improve their schools.

Costs for mapping out a school-community network would be minimal as urban systems generally have central staff capable of helping schools with these kinds of activities. Consequently, this strategy is another low cost–high benefit means to improve urban secondary education. Communities, too are strengthened by networks that link the resources of schools—their students—with those of the broader urban environment.

Coordinated Youth Services: Many children continue to grow up in extremely disadvantaged environments that stunt physical, in-

tellectual and moral growth.

Urban school personnel are acutely aware of this. They also know that the current youth service scene is debilitatingly confusing. Schools often pay for services offered elsewhere while other needs go unfunded. This overlap and confusion about existing youth service programs diminish their impact and fuel citizen disillusionment with public institutions.

Schools must take the lead in coordinating schooling efforts with those of other agencies charged with helping youth, especially in the areas of:

- Social Services;
- School/Work Services; and
- Desegregation Assistance.

The coordination recommendation does not suggest that schools usurp the tasks of other youth service agencies. Some activities and support services would be consolidated within the school, others would allow students credit or free time for out of school work, counseling or education-related activity. Such coordination would lead to more efficient and effective use of limited youth service money—to the relief of taxpayers and the benefit of the teenagers.

Summary: School Finance and Red Tape

Two major governance issues confront Federal, State and local educators alike: school finance equalization; and reduction of red tape. Raised in fairly equal proportion by urban educational experts and practitioners, both issues boil down to dollars. It takes more money to educate disadvantaged children in areas with high costs of living; red tape adds astronomically to administrative costs.

Federal and State mandates for special programs and services, compounded by the recent trend toward increased State fiscal responsibility, have set the stage of a governance crisis in secondary education.

Those governments can and must play a major role in school finance reform and red tape reduction. Urban schools need:

- simplified and standardized applications and regulations, reporting forms and other paperwork;
- coordinated, consolidated Federal/State funds (block grants to sites);
- urban weighting formulas that compensate for disproportionate urban costs;
- sources of funds for urban secondary school—discretionary grants tailored to secondary program needs, education components of community development grants, etc.

Exhibit 3 **(continued)**

Schools are asked to do much, much more. They need money to do the job—in amounts that insure parity with suburban and rural schools.

Summary: Research and Dissemination

Teachers, counselors and principals are generally the first to ask and the last to know. Research on adolescence is scant and the list of necessary research topics discouragingly long. Dollars for research should be channeled to urban secondary learning—including and possibly starting in the junior high "no-person's-land." Systematic dissemination systems must channel research to district and school site practitioners and site council planners. School libraries must become repositories of the most current educational research.

Individual schools can develop a capacity for site-specific research. Expanded research on urban secondary schools and students can act as important incentives for communities interested in local school reform.

PROJECT EXEMPLARS

The five project descriptions which follow are offered as examples of devices to improve school climates. None should be regarded uncritically or adopted unilaterally. Each is designed to be *adapted* to a local situation whenever the need for it arises in a specific locality. The intention in presenting each is to inspire similar attacks on different problems and to foster the creative teaching so important to better learning situations.

All of the following descriptions were abridged from the originals. Interested readers are encouraged to contact the Youth Advocacy projects which developed the programs or manuals to get fuller data. Many contain "exhibits" showing exactly what was used in implementing the program or giving precise instructions for classroom activity. These exhibits were not abridged. Exercises are offered for whatever immediate use can be made of them, but more especially in the hope that using them successfully will inspire adaptation of the total program or illumination of the philosophy behind it.

In the minds of many, "youth advocacy" has negative judicial connotations. The exemplars which follow may serve to correct that misimpression. Members of the Youth Advocacy Loop have been much enriched by their

contacts with agencies of juvenile justice, and that enrichment has served to intensify their linkages with other community agencies. In this they serve as models for community interaction to other Teacher Corps projects.

One of the directives in the Teacher Corps Rules and Regulations is concerned with "the adoption or adaptation of [Teacher Corps'] educational improvements by other educational agencies and institutions."[1] A prerequisite to success in disseminating the results of educational experimentation is to involve from the beginning all of the agencies with a stake in the success of the experiment. Such involvement is conspicuously true of the exemplars which follow. Two of them—the Administrative University of Atlanta and the Alternative Learning Centers of Charleston—involved hand-in-glove cooperation with local school districts. They were joint endeavors impossible of fulfillment without mutual inspiration and dedication. The growing complexity of the student population in a Maine school caused problems calling for the expertise of a counselor whose field experience in conducting inservice skill development workshops extended to mental health centers and correctional institutions as well as secondary schools. Denver's program of teaching human interaction skills was adapted directly from those methods of working with youth developed in Colorado correctional institutions. Such broad bases of experience assure attention to the practicalities of program development and the flexibility of the resultant programs.

All of the project descriptions which follow are directly concerned with assuring a positive school climate. At the conclusion of the first section of this book we mentioned the three activities of the Teacher Corps Youth Advocacy projects directed toward this end and we repeat them here. The steps to assure this climate are through:

[1]From the *Federal Register* of February 23, 1978.

- creation of a curriculum which will insure youth participation and individualization of student needs;
- minimizing organizational problems between administrators and teachers, and teachers and students;
- maintaining social control through effective internal communications.

Minimizing organizational problems between administrators and teachers and between teachers and students is the second of the three guidelines for assuring a positive school climate. This is another way of saying that when administrators and teachers regard themselves as cogs in two different bureaucratic wheels and see their students as cogs in other sets of wheels, the educational process is dehumanized. Acceptance of authority and the discipline this implies is best achieved when those in authority are role models, human beings discharging responsibilities in the sincere interest of helping others. The move toward egalitarianism in schools to meet changing societal needs is not served by perpetuating the image of the autocratic principal or teacher. Atlanta's Administrative University aimed at humanization of the educational process from the top down.

1 THE ADMINISTRATIVE UNIVERSITY

Inservice Training for Principals

In abstracting the problems and recommendations of the Safe School Study[1] which was published in January of 1979, the National Institute of Education concluded with the following statement: "the single most important difference between safe schools and violent schools was found to be a strong, dedicated principal who served as a role model for both students and teachers, and who instituted a firm, fair, and consistent system of discipline" (p. iv).

In anticipation of this emphasis on the principalship and because of the traditional concentration of Teacher Corps on inservice training, the Atlanta Teacher Corps

[1]The National Institute of Education, *Violent Schools-Safe Schools: The Safe School Study Report to the Congress*, Vol. I (Washington, D.C.: GPO, 1979).

Youth Advocacy project collaborated with the Atlanta Public Schools System to develop and implement an "Administrative University" held in the summer of 1978. The program consisted of a ten-day workshop held twice during the summer months and attended by 56 principals and assistant principals of 27 middle and secondary schools. The purpose of the program was to provide principals with opportunities to develop individual discipline action plans for their own schools.

Crucial to the success of the Atlanta workshops was the active involvement of the Superintendent of Schools and the central school administrative cabinet.[2] Administrative issues were localized by initial concentration on a document outlining the discipline policy of the Atlanta Public Schools System, *Discipline Guidelines and Procedures Relating to Suspension and Expulsion.* Before the workshop began, participants' knowledge of these guidelines was tested. A few typical questions in this pre-workshop assessment are contained in Exhibit 4.

The immediacy of the workshop program to the Atlanta locale was further stressed by relying heavily on local personnel. Participating as presenters were the school superintendent, the area superintendent, assistant superintendents, a juvenile court judge, teachers, a principal, parents, a school detective, school attorneys, and a counselor. In addition, faculty were drawn from universities and other school systems.

The formal objectives of the program were:

- to introduce school principals formally to school system guidelines and policy on school discipline;
- to help principals gain an understanding of the causes of discipline problems;
- to provide principals with alternative techniques

[2]Especially Dr. Alonzo A. Crim, Superintendent; Dr. Sidney H. Estes, Assistant Superintendent for Instructional Planning and Development; and Anne W. Bronner, Director of Staff Development. Further information on the program can be obtained from Mae Armster Christian, The Atlanta Teacher Corps Consortium, 2930 Forest Hill Drive, S.W., Atlanta, Georgia 30315.

and strategies for preventing and/or resolving discipline problems;

- to provide principals with the skills needed to develop and put into effect a plan of action to reduce, prevent, and control disruptive behavior in the schools.

Exhibit 4
Typical Questions in the Pre-Workshop Assessment Administered to Participants in the Atlanta Administrative University

(3) Student X who is under suspension from your school has been observed on school premises. You have asked the student to leave, but he refuses. Board policy dictates that:
(A) Student's parents be called.
(B) Student's suspension be extended.
(C) Principal physically remove student.
(D) Student is given one more chance.

(8) Upon observing or being informed of an incident serious enough to warrant short-term suspension, the principal or designee must:
(A) Suspend student.
(B) Conduct a conference with the accused student.
(C) Write parent a letter.
(D) Call area superintendent.

(10) What does due process mean to you as a school principal?

The pages that follow will outline the daily activities of participants. The developmental plan interweaving localization and generalization of problems proved to be

an effective technique which could be adapted to training programs for principals in such diverse areas as management, program delivery, and collective bargaining.

Assessing Knowledge–Day 1

1) Having tested their knowledge of Atlanta's published discipline guidelines before the workshop, the participants began by assessing the levels of their knowledge and their attitudes toward the system's discipline policy.

2) In order to establish a climate for understanding the issues of discipline and disruptive behavior, the Superintendent of Schools and other members of the administrative cabinet presented prepared remarks on discipline from their individual and professional perspectives.

3) Teacher Corps staff discussed informally the workshop goals, objectives, and outcomes. Time was provided for group meetings so that the principals could validate or modify the proposed content and activities relative to their perceived needs. As a result of their suggestions, a judge and two principals were added to the "faculty" of the Administrative University.

The State of the Art–Day 2

The day's activities took a panel format in which participants were presented with local statistics pertaining to student disruptive behavior. The basis of discussion was a document compiled by the staff of the Atlanta Teacher Corps Project including national and regional statistics on school disruption, a definition of disruptive behavior, and information on causes and solutions. Panel members were organized into role groups and consisted of two school attorneys, three parents, a school detective, a principal, a teacher, and a counselor.

The Administrator's Role–Day 3

In order to increase participants' understanding of

how the principal affects school discipline both positively and negatively, an experienced administrator informally described his view of the administrator's role in school discipline, using practical examples of alternatives to administrative strategies. Participants were then given a six-page summary of 7 goals and 55 recommendations relating to school discipline. Exhibit 5 is a sampling from this summary listing the first three of the seven goals. The other goals dealt with using teams, involving parents, reinforcing positive school behavior, and creating opportunities for faculty and staff to assess and manage discipline problems.

Exhibit 5
A Sampling of the Summary of Goals and Recommendations Relating to School Discipline

Goal Number 1:	Create an awareness on the part of all who work and study in the school that it is an organization governed by rules.
Recommendations:	Students should be taught about school rules and the consequences for disobeying them.
	School rules and the consequences for disobeying them should be publicized widely and updated regularly.
Goal Number 2:	Collect, maintain, and utilize data on student behavior to improve school discipline.
Recommendations:	Standard procedures for reporting behavior problems should be developed.
	One or two school employees should be given responsibility for receiving, storing, and periodically disseminating disciplinary data.
	Data on school discipline should be reported regularly to the Board of Education and to the general public.
Goal Number 3:	Provide opportunities for those who work and study in school to express their concerns and problems in a supportive atmosphere.
Recommendations:	In any process of conflict resolution in school, educators should attempt to deal only with the specific situation at hand.

Exhibit 5 (continued)

Conflict resolution procedures should take place on an individual basis and in private.

Models for Dealing with School Behavior–Day 4

1) To familiarize principals with Teacher Corps strategies and methodologies for reducing the level of disruptive behavior, the Atlanta Teacher Corps Youth Advocacy Model for dealing with school behavior was presented and discussed by members of the Teacher Corps staff, the director, the associate director, and the project school principal. Distinctive features of the model developed over the preceding two years were:

- staff development and training,
- school-based initiatives,
- social agencies, and
- community involvement.

2) A second model for discipline developed by Dr. William Glasser was presented through film, lecture, and small group exercises to familiarize principals with a step-by-step approach to dealing with student discipline.[3] Brief case studies were also used to validate the principals' understanding of the model.

Focus on Skills and Plan Development–Day 5

1) Principals were given a collection of materials to help them improve their skills in organizational management, specifically, recognizing sources of conflict, recognizing hidden agendas, and dealing successfully with delegation. John S. Blackshear, a principal, discussed the applied research necessary to analyze and define local problems, to collect data on them, and to specify indicators of improvement. Counselors from the Division of School and Community Services then out-

[3]The audiovisual kit which was used consisted of two filmstrips, two cassettes, and a question sheet. Entitled *Glasser's Ten Steps to Discipline*, it was published in 1978 by Media 5 of Los Angeles.

Exhibit 6
The Process of Integrated Problem-Solving

		Act
I	Problem Definition	obtaining information resources understanding the problem situation determining goals
II	Problem-Solution Generation	generating solution ideas refining ideas into alternatives listing specific alternatives
III	Ideas to Actions	evaluating solution alternatives modifying and combining alternatives selecting a trial alternative
IV	Solution-Action Planning	listing and timing the action steps identifying all needed resources determining action responsibilities
V	Solution-Evaluation Planning	developing measures for each step creating a timetable for evaluation determining action responsibilities
VI	Evaluation of the Product and the Process	comparing outcomes with objectives looking for new problems created determining further actions needed

lined a variety of counseling techniques, particularly emphasizing ways of encouraging self-direction in student conferences.

2) Members of the Atlanta Teacher Corps staff gave a detailed explanation of the planning process using the six-stage process of integrated problem-solving presented as Exhibit 6. With this background, principals and their assistants worked together to formulate a plan of action unique to their schools.

The Administrator's Role in Discipline Programs–Day 6

An administrator discussed management styles, classifying them as:

1) Our Way—Proactive,
2) My Way—Autocratic Control,

Exhibit 6
(continued)

	Interact	Action
I	involving all persons concerned sharing information openly developing consensus on goals	Search for the problem
II	encouraging everyone to give ideas accepting all ideas without criticism cooperating in listing alternatives	Originate ideas
III	supporting rather than attacking accepting and resolving differences developing solution consensus	Look for the best
IV	involving all group members identifying resistances openly developing action commitments	Verify responsi-bilities
V	using all group member resources sharing concerns and resolving differences developing commitments to evaluation actions	Elicit evaluation plans
VI	evaluating degree of participation evaluating openness and support evaluating process learnings	Determine effects

3) Your Way—Inactive,
4) No Way—Reactive.

Participants then worked in small groups to explore various role models for disciplinary programs.

The Administrator's Responsibility and Stress–Day 7

The stress associated with administrative responsibility and means of coping with it were discussed. Various models for stress reduction were presented, including that reproduced as Exhibit 7.

Presenting the Action Plan–Day 8

The action plans begun by the principals and their assistants on day 5 to meet the individual needs of their schools were presented for critique and comment. Most

of the principals, in anticipation of the beginning of the fall semester, felt that orientation of students and teachers to school regulations was their most urgent need. The following example is typical of many of the action plans developed during the workshops.

One school plan called for orientation sessions to increase the understanding among faculty and students of the school's goals and policies regarding discipline. Both students and teachers at this school had felt a lack of definition in rules and policies. Teacher Corps staff members were called upon to participate in the orientation sessions. The plan included an evaluation based on observed changes in attitudes and behaviors of teachers and students regarding school rules.

Exhibit 7
Managing Stress

1. Sit quietly in a comfortable position.
2. Close your eyes.
3. Deeply relax all your muscles, beginning at your feet and continuing to your face. Keep them relaxed.
4. Breathe through your nose. Become aware of your breathing. As you breathe out, say the word, ONE," silently to yourself. For example, breathe In . . . Out, "ONE"; In . . . Out, "ONE," and so on. Breathe easily and naturally.
5. Continue for 10 to 20 minutes. You may open your eyes to check the time, but do not use an alarm. When you finish, sit quietly for several minutes, at first with your eyes closed and later with your eyes opened. Do not stand up for a few minutes.
6. Don't worry about whether you succeed in achieving a deep level of relaxation. Maintain a passive attitude and permit relaxation to occur at its own pace. When distracting thoughts occur, try to ignore them by not dwelling upon them and return to repeating "ONE." With practice, the response should come with little effort. Practice the technique once or twice daily, but not within two hours after a meal. The digestive processes seem to interfere with the relaxation response.

Physical Fitness–Days 9 and 10

The workshop concluded with two days of lectures

and activities to assess the physical fitness of participants and to relate physical fitness to mental health. Individual assessments (body fat, blood pressure, blood samples) were interspersed with explanations of the aging process, dietary analyses, explanations of relaxation techniques, and discussion of health problems common to administrators as a group.

Some Effects of the Workshop

Atlanta's Administrative University produced much more than action plans for individual schools. The waves it created are still being felt.

An immediate effect of enforced administrative exposure to the printed *Discipline Guidelines and Procedures Relating to Suspension and Expulsion* was the appointment of a School District Task Force to prepare a simplified version of the discipline guidelines for distribution to students. Atlanta Teacher Corps subsequently prepared a version for parents, one for administrators and teachers, and another for students.

One of the practical results of conducting the Atlanta workshops for principals was to demonstrate that directives for controlling discipline are effective only insofar as they are understood both by those administering the rules and by those who must obey the rules. A harmonious school climate is possible only when communication is effective.

The second of the exemplars is immediately concerned with communicating for the purpose of individualizing student needs, the first of the guidelines for establishing a positive school climate. The idea of individualization is pervasive in this program, which begins by assessing the response skills of the teachers in the program and perpetuates itself by employing the trained teachers as a cadre to "spread the effect."

2 COUNSELING SKILLS FOR TEACHERS

Disruptive behavior is not categorically a discipline problem, since it is often not intended to be disruptive but results from the individual's attempting to have his or her needs met in an inappropriate manner at an inappropriate time. What may be labeled disruptive in one social setting may be considered appropriate in a different setting. In fact, behavior considered disruptive in the classroom at 9:00 a.m. may be acceptable in that same classroom at 3:00 p.m.

Such policies as mainstreaming and integration have broadened the range of behavioral and learning problems facing teachers in many of today's schools. The training which most of today's teachers received taught them to assist a fairly uniform student body, and the skills which teachers learned frequently do not help in present classrooms. Indeed, such techniques as "guiding" and "threatening" may actually contribute to the development of adversary relationships between teachers and students. Even the empathy teachers natu-

rally and tacitly express for those with physical or social handicaps can work against the philosophy of mainstreaming and integration by setting some class members apart through preferred treatment.

Qualifications in the definition of "disruptive behavior" can nevertheless do little to erode the hard core of incidence of antisocial behavior among students, however formally or informally the offending individuals are known to have behavioral or learning problems. Adolescence is a period of time in which psychological problems are to be expected. The success with which these problems are resolved and the help an adolescent receives in solving them will markedly affect how that young person emerges as an adult.

A needs assessment process conducted by the Maine Youth Advocacy Teacher Corps staff at one of its project sites found that the *first* priority of local teachers was to learn more effective ways to communicate and interact with disruptive youth. Identification of this need prompted the local school administration and the Teacher Corps staff to seek the assistance of Dr. William O. Mehnert, Associate Professor in the Counselor Education Program at the University of Maine at Orono, who had delivered a variety of field-based courses for teachers, counselors, human service workers, and medical personnel. The result was the development of a comprehensive seminar identified as I-CARE (Individual Counseling and Responsibility Experience). The program requires an average of 45 hours of inservice training for educational personnel plus another 40 hours of counseling sessions with youth, parents, or fellow teachers.

This field-based counseling skills program was developed and implemented with educational personnel over an eight-year period. Aspects of the program were used in inservice training sessions with inner-city teachers in Indiana, and with teachers in rural schools in South Dakota and Iowa. The complete I-CARE program

was offered to educational personnel in a junior high school in Maine.

Program Guidelines

Individualization: The program avoids the rote learning of helping responses typically found in available training materials. It accounts for the individual differences of participating teachers, starting with a full accounting of their range of response skills, and tailors responses needed to help each unique individual being counseled. It is not a program committed to a particular counseling theory.

Decoding Activities: Training includes opportunities for participants to decode or identify various counseling modes, including active listening, probing, open or closed questions. Video-taped role models are emphasized over written materials for this activity.

Training and Feedback: In addition to the 40-50 hours of seminar time, the I-CARE program involves a minimum of 40 hours of actual counseling sessions with students and others. Frequent practice sessions and video-taped feedback to teachers insure that teachers learn to understand their own responses (self-to-self communication) and help them investigate their emotional reactions to a variety of verbal and nonverbal messages.

Educational Technologies: The I-CARE program emphasizes simulation activities, stimulus vignettes, microcounseling,[1] and Interpersonal Process Recall.[2] Most of all it emphasizes a high-trust, low-risk, supportive learning environment encouraging full participation based on realistic self-assessment of communication techniques.

Role Playing, the First Step

At the beginning of the program teachers role play sessions in which one teacher "plays" the student with a personal concern. A second teacher tries to help by using

his or her typical means of communication. These video-taped sessions help teachers learn important lessons:

1) Each teacher as counselor is helped to identify the helping verbal responses he or she already uses. This demonstrates what skills teachers bring to inservice training. Professionals are more likely to examine ineffective behaviors when they believe that some of their current behaviors are effective.

2) These sessions also help increase teacher awareness of student concerns. Teachers who role play students usually gain some insight into student thinking and feeling. Often, they gain critical insights into student behaviors.

3) Listening and watching the replays of tapes helps teachers identify different categories of responses. Often, teachers are shocked to learn they used 20 to 30 closed questions (which permit only limited answers) in a 15-minute session. Many of these initial sessions sound more like interrogations than helpful interactions.

After identifying their typical responses, teachers are given manuals which present and illustrate a variety of counseling skills. The manuals are supplemented with video tapes which model the actual response. The following are some examples of counseling skills taught in the I-CARE training program.

Effective Counseling Responses

1) *Attending responses,* mainly nonverbal, communicate the teacher's interest in helping the student.

- Looking the person in the eyes communicates undivided attention to what is being said.
- Leaning slightly forward in the chair as the student begins to speak about concerns emphasizes interest.
- An occasional "um-hum," "yes," or "I see" is a ver-

[1]Allen E. Ivey, *Microcounseling* (Springfield, Ill.: Charles C Thomas, 1971).
[2]Norman Kagan, *Interpersonal Process Recall* (East Lansing: Michigan State University, 1975).

bal form of attending which indicates interest. These can be overdone. An occasional nod also indicates attention and interest.

2) *Open-end responses* are initial responses to help the student begin to talk. They require a lengthy response by the student. They may begin with why, how, what, or "Tell me about . . . ."

- Why does your father want you to attend a local college? How do you feel about that?
- What are some of your reasons against going there?

3) *Tracking responses* aid a student in sticking to a topic of his choice by reflecting his words, ideas, or feelings. Student: "My father asks me every day what I did, and who I did it with. He treats me like I don't know right from wrong." Responses:

- Your father asks you daily what you did and with whom (words).
- Your father keeps a pretty close check on what you're doing (idea).
- You're angry and frustrated with your father's lack of trust and confidence in you (feeling).

4) *Clarification responses* mean you're trying to understand but are uncertain of meaning. They often begin with "Do you mean . . . ?"

- Do you mean every day?
- Are you more hurt than angry?
- Is it that he doesn't trust you or that this place worries him?

5) *Silence* is a potent tracking response which gives the student an opportunity to continue. The slightly increased duration of pauses after the student finishes a statement conveys interest and gives "talking space." Student: "He just doesn't treat me like he used to." (Teacher silently attends.) Student: "But I guess the way I've changed may have something to do with that."

6) Focusing responses help the student zero in on a particular problem or concern, whereas the previous responses were aimed at encouraging the student to talk. Without focusing, the student may be unwilling to overcome emotional barriers to explore the problem. These responses try to help the student to talk about the who, what, when, where, and how of specific feelings and thoughts:

- *What* do you mean *when* you say you really acted stupid?
- Could you push the feeling a little harder? (to help the student move from an abstract level to a more basic emotional level).
- I think I understand what you mean, but could you describe the last time *when* this happened to you?

7) Refocusing helps students gently back to the specifics of the problem or concern when they respond to probing by changing topics or speaking in an abstract way.

- A minute ago, before you started describing the movie you saw, you said you felt worthless again when she said she didn't want to go out with you. I'm not sure I understand what you meant by "worthless again."

8) Ownership of a problem should be encouraged when students describe in second-person terms ("You have to . . ." or "They are . . .").

- I'm not sure I understand how YOU feel about it.
- Is that how it is for YOU?

Ownership in Communication

Frequently communication can be improved by substituting "I" messages for "you" messages, much as the teacher encouraged in the preceding example. In the following examples, two teachers role play each situation and then discuss the impact of compiling ownership

of feelings with a description of the situation. A key to probable responses is provided at the end of the exercises.

1) A student turns in a report that has many mistakes, spelling errors, and a messy appearance. *You* message: "Why do you always have to be so sloppy?"
Description of your feelings:
I message:
2) A practice teacher seems to resist every suggestion you make. *You* message: "You have a lousy attitude."
Description of your feelings:
I message:
3) A teacher has overspent his budget. *You* message: "Why are you so extravagant?"
Description of your feelings:
I message:

Key responses: (1) I feel a little insulted (exasperated, irritated) when there are so many errors and pages are messy. (2) I really feel puzzled (hurt, rejected) when my suggestions are challenged on every count. (3) I'm annoyed that the supply budget has been exceeded.

Microcounseling Sessions

Microcounseling involves brief helping sessions in which the participant, working with a trainer, tries to use a particular type of helping response naturally without imitating someone else's mannerisms. Some teachers, for example, may decide that their goal during a 15-minute session is to avoid closed questions completely.

One particular charge to the I-CARE trainer is to avoid responding to teacher requests for evaluation. The instructor's role is to identify and clarify responses—for example, whether a particular response is a clarification or a paraphrase—not to judge which of several is better. Helpful responses to teachers' requests for evaluation are:

- There is no one correct response to any given student's statement.
- The best way to find out how helpful a response was is to consider the way the other person talked about a concern following your response.

Since the emphasis in I-CARE is on increasing teacher sensitivity to the impact of their responses on others, the point of the training is lost when a participant tries to please an instructor or evaluator. It is enhanced when participants learn to discriminate the type of behavior which follows a particular kind of response.

Student Sessions

After teachers acquire some degree of naturalness in the counseling sessions, they are asked to hold helping sessions with individual students and to tape-record the sessions when possible. Teachers are urged to start with students with whom they have some degree of rapport, not with the most difficult students in their classes. These initial tape-recorded sessions are a very important part of the I-CARE training. Teachers often present a whole range of reasons for not making a tape.

The instructor continues to encourage teachers gently but firmly to make the first recording. One device is to role play with the teacher one way in which the teacher can recruit a student for a session. The following is one typical explanation practiced by teachers:

- Teacher: Joe, I'm taking a course to help me learn ways to help students talk about important things in their lives. Would you be willing to come to my room during sixth period to talk for a while about anything in your life that you'd be willing to discuss with me? It doesn't have to be a major problem. It can be any kind of concern or interest that you'd be willing to talk about. If it's all right with you, I'd like to make an audio recording so I can listen later and

try to understand the ways I might have helped. Do you have any questions?

Later, the teachers are asked to play their record sessions with the instructor and a small group of other teachers. Such feedback sessions help the teacher identify the types of responses used as well as the impact that responses had on the student. The teacher rather than the I-CARE instructor should control the tape recorder. The instructor avoids judgments of responses. To questions about right and wrong responses, the instructional response should be: "What did the student say next?"

Internal Communication

In addition to helping the teacher learn to communicate with others, I-CARE assists the teacher in communicating with himself or herself. Training is designed to alert teachers to recognize emotions which can restrict their ability to communicate with disruptive youth.

Brief video-taped vignettes help teachers begin to understand their internal messages and feelings. The I-CARE program uses vignettes developed by Kagan[3] in which individuals appear on the video monitor, look directly at the screen, and engage in a variety of verbal and nonverbal behaviors. Vignettes are carefully selected by the trainers. If the teachers are not ready for the problems depicted in the vignettes, they can create high levels of stress which cause teachers to reject the value of understanding their own internal reactions. For example, student anger is an easier emotion for most teachers to respond to than seductive behavior.

In conjunction with the vignettes, the trainer uses explanatory or open-ended questions designed to help the teacher discover affective or emotional reactions to various scenes portrayed on the film. Teachers are encouraged to share their reactions with others. First, the teacher discusses the reactions with one other teacher.

[3]Ibid.

After the initial pairs have reacted, new pairs are formed. Then teachers share their reactions with groups of four, and finally with the larger training group. This step-by-step process helps teachers develop trust, confidence, and a sense of a cohesive community of learners.

Effects of "You" Messages

The following exercises are designed to help teachers understand their internal reactions, as well as the effects of "you" messages. Working in pairs, teachers take turns reading the statements and recording their feelings. A list of responses is provided at the end of the exercise for comparison. Here are some sample statements:

If someone says:	*The person would feel:*
1) You have just made a mistake on a report. Why can't you do anything right?	1)
2) A mistake has been made that affects your tenure. You know how it is.	2)
3) Your administrator announces at a teacher's meeting: We've got to get better organized.	3)
4) You have been very quiet for the last few days. What's the matter? You're not your normal self.	4)

Responses for comparison: (1) You'd probably feel resentful, unduly criticized. You might get very defensive. (2) You'd be angry. The statement indicates that the impact of your status is so minimal that it can be shrugged off. (3) You might wonder what was meant by "we." If you don't feel there is a problem, you might resent the inference that you're not organized. (4) You might find this an opportunity to open up, or you might resent the intrusion. The only concern expressed for you is indirect or through voice tone.

More Student Sessions

Teachers are now ready for video-taped sessions with students. The preparation procedure is similar to that used with the audio-taped sessions earlier in the training. To reduce anxiety, each teacher is first video-taped with a colleague.

After teachers have gained some degree of self-confidence, they are introduced to the Interpersonal Process Recall procedure.[4] It works as follows:

- The teacher and a student have a meeting lasting 20 to 30 minutes during which the student is asked to discuss any important issue or concern.
- After the session, one or both of the participants observe the video monitor which is replaying the session. Each is given a switch that can stop or start the tape.
- During part of the recall session, the teacher leaves the room. The trainer conducts a recall with the student which is observed by the teacher and several peers via a video monitor in another room. Other recall sessions are conducted with the student and teacher both present.
- The trainer acts as a consultant and uses explanatory questions to help either or both persons in a self-discovery process. (How did you feel when she said that?)
- As the student observes the replay, the trainer asks questions designed to elicit student statements which will tell the teacher how helpful the session was for the student. For example: "Did you feel your teacher understood you at that point?" "Was the teacher helpful to you?" "In what ways was the teacher helpful to you at that point?" "What would you like the teacher to say next?"

During the recall session, the trainer emphasizes that

[4]Kagan, *Interpersonal Process Recall.*

the teacher or the student should stop the replay at any point to talk about additional thoughts and feelings.

"Spread of Effect"

The final phase of training emphasizes a "spread of effect" concept. Teachers are encouraged to use what they learned in training with various individuals. The inservice training meetings become a seminar for discussion of particular problems faced by teachers as they use their counseling skills with specific individuals. Teachers report that this inservice training process not only enhances their professional competencies, but also increases their effectiveness in their personal lives.

Evaluation

Research on the effects of I-CARE supports the personal reports of teachers regarding the effectiveness of the program. A three-group research design, incorporating a control group and two treatment (training) groups, was used to gather and analyze data in order to determine the impact of the program. Comparisons between control and training groups were conducted focusing on three specific categories:

1) teacher attitude change,
2) changes in teacher response selection, and
3) changes in teacher verbal interactions.

Data obtained from teacher responses to the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale indicate that I-CARE training groups change significantly in their pre-post responses to items dealing with the "social self" (the self in relation to others category). This reflects the teacher's sense of adequacy and worth in his or her interaction with other people. The significance level of the I-CARE teachers over the control group teachers was at the $p = .04$ level, indicating an improvement of the teachers' attitude toward reaching out and engaging others in helping relationships.

Data obtained from teachers' responses to a videotaped criteria test indicated that the I-CARE teachers improved significantly in their ability to select effective responses to individuals' verbal and nonverbal behaviors. Although there was no significant difference between the control group and the I-CARE groups before training, post-test results indicated a significant difference at the $p = .02$ level favoring the I-CARE teachers.

A factor which makes the achievement of the I-CARE teachers particularly significant in these two categories is that teachers in the control group were exposed to a number of different inservice courses and inservice workshops during the period in which the I-CARE program was conducted.

The third of the exemplars being presented is related closely to the second. Less formal and technical in execution, it encourages teacher exploration of the basics of child psychology, but goes beyond that. The exercises accompanying it encourage class members to recognize their own disruptive behavior and the motives behind it. Moreover, the exercises provide students with some tools to maintain effective social control both in interacting with other students and with the members of their families. In so doing, this exemplar seeks achievement of the third step to the creation of a positive school climate.

3 HUMAN INTERACTION SKILLS

An Alternative for Dealing with Disruptive Behavior in Schools

Invoking discipline in a classroom is self-defeating when the methods invite retaliation and discipline problems are compounded. Negative behavior must be countered with constructive interaction between persons, alternatives more positive than rewards, punishment, and banishment. Without positive interaction between the individuals in any school system, teaching and learning become impossible.

The rising spiral of misbehavior in schools indicates that emphasizing external discipline and power is not effective. Assigning police to school corridors and raising the height of fences around playgrounds assure recognition of limits and controls, but "the efficient allocation of security resources by itself merely becomes a more efficient way of carrying on battles with students."[1]

The Loretto Heights College Teacher Corps Project in

[1]The National Institute of Education, *Violent Schools–Safe Schools: The Safe School Study Report to the Congress*, Vol. I (Washington, D.C.: GPO, 1979), pp. 91-92.

Denver developed a flexible program to encourage human interactions adapted from the methods of working with youth in Colorado correctional facilities. The materials which follow are representative of a much broader program designed to be adapted and altered constantly. Procedures were developed not by researchers, but by staff people who dealt daily with the tough, nitty-gritty problems of troubled youth and who could call upon support and assistance from experts. Interested administrators, teachers, and students can adapt the program to their particular school communities, just as some schools in the Denver area have done.[2]

Human Interaction Training involves understanding why students behave as they do and learning alternative responses to different behaviors by improving the ability of teachers and administrators to communicate and deal with feelings. In one school where Human Interaction Training was introduced, five teachers were selected to take a series of courses on such topics as teacher effectiveness, values clarification, and systematic parenting. After their course work in psychology and human relations, these teachers were given release time to develop a communications curriculum and became the trainers of their peers. The program they developed required about 30 hours of actual training in 10 three-hour blocks of time. Tape-recording classes provided the means to clarify the abilities of trainees and to get feedback when new skills were tried out.

Behavioral Patterns

People behave or act for a purpose, whether that purpose is conscious or subconscious, and behavioral motives are fairly universal. This is as true for negative or disruptive behavior as it is for positive, constructive behavior. All behavior has a social purpose derived from

[2]More information on Human Interaction Training can be obtained from the Director of Institutional Treatment, State of Colorado Division of Youth Services, Denver, Colorado 80203.

the main goal of people—to belong. Misbehavior can be corrected when its goals are identified. The goals of misbehavior fall into four main categories:[3]

1) to attract *attention*,
2) to gain *power*,
3) to get *revenge*, and
4) to display *inadequacy*.

Seeking Attention. The need for attention is so strong that most people prefer negative attention, such as being yelled at, to being ignored. A teacher must determine who in the classroom gets the most attention and if troublemakers get more attention than students who toe the line. The teacher who reacts to disruptive behavior by reminding, coaxing, or stopping activities to yell knows that the goal of a misbehaving student was to seek attention when such a reaction is followed by temporary improvement.

While all children need some attention, the teacher must realize that responding to demands for attention reinforces the inappropriate desire for attention. Whenever possible, misbehavior should be ignored. Appreciation for a student's positive behavior can decrease the need for attention if the positive behavior is not also meant to get attention. In order to recognize when attention is appropriate and when it is not, the teacher must recognize the demands of the classroom situation as a whole.

The Power Drive. Students seek power to feel significant. The attitude of the disruptive student is: "No one can force me to do anything. No one can stop me from doing anything." Attempts at correction rarely succeed in changing this attitude and often intensify student defiance. Temporary compliance only means that misbehavior will resume later with more ferocity.

A power struggle often occurs after an unsuccessful

[3]Rudolf Dreikurs with Vicki Soltz, *Children: The Challenge* (N.Y.: Hawthorne Books, 1964), pp. 58-64.

demand for attention. A student is devastated by the fear of being overwhelmed by the teacher and will go to terrifying lengths to demonstrate power. In such a situation the teacher's only solution is to avoid getting angry by disengaging from the power struggle. The assertion of power by the teacher in such a situation only impresses the student with the value of power and increases the desire to get it.

A teacher can distinguish between a demand for attention and a demand for power by observing a student's behavior upon correction. If the goal is attention, the student will stop misbehaving at least temporarily. If the student is motivated by a need for power, attempts to stop his disruptive behavior will only intensify the disturbance.

The Desire for Revenge. As the power struggle between teacher and student intensifies to the point where both parties are trying to subdue each other, a desire for retaliation may develop. The weaker person—the student—may seek revenge as the only means of feeling significant or powerful. The student no longer believes that he or she is lovable and seeks significance by hurting others so that they will share the experience of being hurt.

A vengeful student can only be comforted by assurance from the teacher that he or she is lovable and loved. A negative response will only intensify a negative reaction when the student's desire to belong is replaced with wanting to be cruel and disliked. Punishment is ineffective in such a situation. Instead, the teacher must initiate efforts to establish trust.

Proving Inadequacy. Discouraged students often display negative behavior in an effort to keep others from expecting anything more from them. They feel helpless and use this helplessness to avoid the embarrassment of failing at tasks they believe they cannot perform satisfactorily.

A teacher should not encourage a student to believe in

his own inadequacy by finding fault or by displaying pity to reinforce the student's hopelessness. If the teacher can focus on the student's assets and strengths, the student will be able to develop self-confidence.

Identifying the goals of misbehavior is obviously much less complex than changing patterns of misbehavior. Teachers need to deal with their own students in their own environments in order to come up with solutions to difficult behavior problems. One means of doing so is to encourage students to recognize their own behavioral motivation. Exhibit 8 is a sample activity for class participation.

Exhibit 8
Recognizing the Goals of Misbehavior

Time: 20 minutes

Participants: The whole class

Process:

1) Ask a student to explain his reasons for a specific act of misbehavior.
2) Ask that student's permission to share your opinion.
3) Relate that misbehavior to each of the four goals:
   - Attention
   - Power
   - Revenge
   - Inadequacy

Caution: Psychological disclosure must always be done in a friendly manner.

1) Do not label or accuse the student. Don't use knowledge of the goals of misbehavior to defeat or humiliate the student.
2) Once the goal of misbehavior is identified, always initiate a discussion of what can be done to change misbehavior.
   - Attention: Ignore attention seeking.
   - Power: Show respect; model cooperation.
   - Revenge: Look for a chance to win over.
   - Inadequacy: Recognize accomplishments.
3) Win the student's cooperation. Have a discussion *with* the student; do not deliver a lecture *to* the student.

The Importance of Family

Early in life children develop beliefs about who they are, who and what others are, what is important in life, and how one should function in order to belong. These beliefs are reflected in their lifestyles. In order to understand the factors which contribute to a child's lifestyle, a teacher should learn something of the family constellation and the child's placement in that constellation.[4]

The age of a child is often far less important in understanding that child's behavior than knowing what siblings the child has and the child's placement within the group of siblings. Competition, or lack of it, between siblings greatly influences personality development. For example, a middle child who believes scrambling and intense competition are the only ways to belong to the family group will probably be troublesome in the classroom.

No two children from the same family behave in the same way, for a variety of reasons including the following changes in the family environment:

1) With the birth of each child, the situation changes.
2) Parents become older and more experienced.
3) Parents may become more prosperous.
4) The family may move to another neighborhood.
5) Because of divorce or death, a step-parent may become a family member.

Many other factors may affect the child. These include a sickly or crippled sibling, a child born close to the death of another, being an only boy among girls or an only girl among boys, having an older person living in the home, or parental favoritism toward one child. The last is especially potent. Most early childhood discouragements spring from the feeling that somebody else

[4]Much of the following material is adapted from "The Characteristics of Family Constellation" by Floy Pepper of the Portland, Oregon, Public Schools.

was preferred, or that children of one sex were preferred over the other.

Certain personality characteristics can be projected depending upon a child's placement in the family:

The only child spends an entire childhood among people who are more proficient. This child may either try to develop skills that will gain adult approval or seek approval by being shy, timid, or helpless. The following characteristics may distinguish an only child:

1) Is usually pampered; may have mother complex if a boy.
2) May feel rivalry with father if the only boy.
3) Enjoys position as center of interest.
4) Is usually interested only in self.
5) May feel insecure because of anxiety of parents.
6) Is usually not taught to gain things by own effort; to want something is to have it.
7) May feel unfairly treated and refuse to cooperate if requests are not granted.

The first child feels that being oldest should entitle him or her to a favored spot, as it often does. The child may feel threatened by younger rivals, becoming discouraged upon the birth of a second child and refusing to accept responsibility.

1) Is center of interest only for a time.
2) Feels the need to gain and hold superiority over younger children.
3) Becomes "dethroned" with the birth of the second child and may feel unloved and neglected. Need for maternal attention may inspire positive deeds. If this fails, may switch to hopelessness and become obnoxious.
4) Can become good and competent or extremely discouraged.
5) May strive to help and project others in struggle to retain upper hand.

6) May direct death wishes or hatred toward second child.
7) If the first child is a boy followed in a short time by a sister:
   a) Personal conflict may become a pattern of sexual discord.
   b) He may develop more slowly than sister until age 17.
   c) He may take advantage of social preference for males.
   d) The sister may develop feeling of inferiority.

The second child feels uncomfortable and often steams ahead to try to catch up with the first child, feeling under constant pressure.

1) Never has parents' individual attention.
2) Always with another child who is more advanced.
3) Feels first child cannot be beaten, which disputes second child's claim of quality.
4) Acts as if in a race—hyperactive and pushy.
5) May feel uncertain of self if first child is successful.
6) Often feels opposite of first child—undependable and "bad" if first child is dependable and "good."
7) Becomes "squeezed" if third child is born.

The youngest child may feel outdistanced and become a speeder, may become successful, or may become discouraged and feel inferior.

1) Often acts like an only child.
2) Usually has things done for him—decisions made, responsibilities taken.
3) Usually spoiled by the family.
4) Feels in an embarrassing position—smallest, weakest, and frequently not taken seriously.
5) May become the "boss of the family."
6) Either tries to excel older siblings or evades the direct struggle for superiority.

7) May retain baby role, placing others in service.
8) Often allies with the first child.

The middle child of three has an uncertain place in the family group and probably feels neglected, without the privileges of the youngest or the rights of the oldest.

1) May feel unloved and abused.
2) May become "squeezed" when the third child is born.
3) May believe people are unfair to him or her.
4) May be unable to find a place in the group.
5) May become extremely discouraged—prone to becoming a problem child.

The middle children in a large family often develop a more stable character than other middle children. In large families there is less strife and conflict among children.

Exhibit 9 is a sample activity designed to help the members of a class better understand how family constellation can influence an individual's personality development.

Exhibit 9
Family Constellation and Individual Personality Development

Time: 45 minutes
Participants: The whole class, grouped in small circles
Material: Paper and pen for each group
Process:
1) Class should have read the discussion of family constellation.
2) Ask the group to divide according to their placement in their own family. Groups are: oldest children, second children, middle of three, youngest, middle children of large families, only children.
3) Have each group make a list of what children are like in their family position. Seek perceptions of what it was like and/or what problems they experienced.
4) Ask group members to discuss some of the problems they faced as children and still may face because of their family placement:
   a) How does this problem affect them personally?

Exhibit 9 (continued)

b) How does this problem affect them professionally?
c) How does this problem relate to the running of their own families?
d) How does placement in the family affect or influence behaviors and/or attitudes of the youth they work with?

5) Have the groups return to the large group and share their perceptions.

Alternatives to the Power Struggle

Teaching and learning are difficult in an atmosphere of confrontation and power struggles. While discipline strategies are needed to protect people and property, the human interaction approach offers teachers tools with which to improve the climate of the classroom. These are techniques by which to encourage positive behavior, and alternatives to the reward/punishment system of discipline invoking the natural and logical consequences of student misbehavior.[5]

Encouragement focuses on others' assets and strengths, reinforcing cooperation and building self-confidence. By helping others believe in themselves and their abilities, it shows them they are valued and accepted and motivates them to greater achievement. It can be given at any time, not just when something good is done.

Praise also focuses on positive behavior, but is different from and less successful than other forms of encouragement. In praise is implied a value judgment of another person's behavior or his potential as a person.

[5]The following section is drawn from: Don Dinkmeyer and Rudolf Dreikurs, *Encouraging Children to Learn: The Encouragement Process* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1963); Clint Reimer, "Some Words of Encouragement"; Vicki Soltz and Rudolf Dreikurs, "Praise vs. Encouragement"; Rudolf Dreikurs and Vicki Soltz, *Children: The Challenge* (N.Y.: Hawthorne Books, 1964).

Others can view it as a way to manipulate them to do what they do not want to do, since it is based on competition with the goal of winning or being the best as an important reward. Indiscriminately used, it can create a dependence among those motivated by its external rewards.

The words a teacher chooses to encourage a student should show recognition for effort and faith in the student's ability. In order to distinguish them from words of praise, which may have a ring of insincerity ("Aren't you wonderful . . . ," "I'm so proud of . . ."), the following list of encouraging phrases is offered:

1) "You do a good job of . . ." (particularly effective when not asked for or expected).
2) "You have improved in . . . ."
3) "We like you, but we don't like what you do" (important in distinguishing between the student as a person and that student's behavior).
4) "You can help by . . . ."
5) "Let's try it together."
6) "So you made a mistake. What can you learn from it?"
7) "You want us to think you can't do it, but we think you can."
8) "Keep trying. Don't give up."
9) "I'm sure you can solve this yourself, but if you need help, you know where to find me."
10) "I can understand how you feel, but I'm sure you'll be able to handle it" (empathy rather than sympathy).

Exhibit 10 is a sample activity to introduce a class to the differences between encouragement and praise, and to provoke discussion of effective ways to convey encouragement.

Exhibit 10
Conveying Encouragement

Time:	30 to 45 minutes
Participants:	The whole class, sitting in a circle
Process:	After introducing the major concepts of encouragement vs. praise, open a discussion about words, phrases, and sentences which offer encouragement by: • demonstrating acceptance; • showing confidence; • focusing on contributions, assets, and appreciation; and • recognizing effort and improvement. Offer the following questions for discussion: • Do you see any benefits of encouraging instead of praising? • What results have you personally seen when you encouraged others? • Have you ever tried to encourage someone but felt you were praising instead? • Do you agree or disagree that there is value in developing a language of encouragement? • How do you feel when you are praised? Could someone say something more meaningful to you?

Consequences vs. Punishment

Natural and logical consequences require students to be responsible for their own behavior, while rewards and punishments deny this responsibility. The consequences of misbehavior should occur as soon as possible after the student misbehaves, and the teacher should view the situation both firmly and kindly. Consequences may be physical in nature—not eating is followed by hunger—or social—arriving late for school requires make-up work. Time and patience are required for the effective imposition of natural and logical consequences. A teacher will be helpful by following these steps:

1) Provide choices and accept the student's decision. Use a friendly tone of voice that communicates good will.

2) Assure students in following through with a consequence that they may try again later.
3) If misbehavior is repeated, extend the time that must elapse before the student may try again.

The differences between punishment and invoking natural consequences can be appreciated by considering punishment's characteristics. Punishment: (1) expresses the power of personal authority, as opposed to the reality of acknowledged mutual rights and mutual respect; (2) is arbitrary or barely related to the logic of the situation; (3) is personalized and implies moral judgment; (4) is concerned with past behavior as opposed to present and future behavior; (5) threatens the offender with disrespect or loss of love like any other put-down; (6) demands obedience without choice.

Anger, warning, and threats can turn logical consequences into punishment, as can the nonverbal expression of hostility. A punitive attitude interferes with the student's experience of the logical consequence of a poor decision by interjecting the distracting elements of force and control. The purpose of providing logical consequences is to encourage the student to make responsible decisions which he chooses and for which he is accountable. When students make poor decisions, they should learn from the consequences.

Logical consequences can be evoked effectively when the teacher:

1) understands the student's goals, behavior, and emotions (so as to improve relationships and sort out the attention-seekers who regard consequences as punishment);
2) avoids overprotection and strives to be consistent;
3) separates the deed from the doer;
4) encourages independence and avoids pity; and
5) refuses to fight or give in by setting clear limits and accepting the student's decision.

A class activity to help students differentiate between

punishment and consequences is presented as Exhibit 11.

Exhibit 11
Differentiating between Punishment and Consequences

Time:	60 minutes
Participants:	The whole class, sitting in a circle
Material:	A cassette recorder and tapes of classroom interactions in which teachers are dealing with student behavior
Process:	1) Listen to several examples of teachers dealing with student misbehavior. 2) Have the group discuss whether the teacher used punishment or consequences to deal with the misbehavior. 3) Were the consequences, if used, logical or natural? 4) Evaluate the results of the interactions between student and teacher. 5) Break into small groups and role play each situation, trying first punishment and then consequences. 6) Have group members discuss how each form of dealing with misbehavior felt to them when they were role playing first the student and then the teacher.

The logical consequence of student misbehavior is all too often suspension, without consideration of alternatives and without consideration that some students misbehave because they seek freedom from classrooms. In recognizing the truth of the Youth Advocacy dictum that schools are the primary socializing agent for youth, two West Virginia schools experimented with an in-school suspension program invoking denial of social privileges to disruptive youth. In doing so, they attempted to assure youth participation in the maintenance of a positive school climate by modification of social control. The effectiveness of the results can be measured in part by some of the statistics accompanying the following exemplar.

4 KEEPING STUDENTS IN SCHOOL

An In-School Suspension Program

Suspension of students from school has increasingly become a last resort in solving discipline problems, although it probably will always remain in the administrator's kit of disciplinary tools. On the one hand, students have a legal right to education in public schools. On the other, schools must deal with behavioral problems which threaten the classroom atmosphere, the safety of teachers and students, and school property.

Often students view suspension as a ticket to freedom—days away from the pressures and expectations of the classroom. The suspended student will be unsupervised during school hours, free to roam at will in the community and seek new opportunities for misbehavior. When suspension simply means liberation to the student, it changes the location of a problem but fails to deal with it.

Two schools in Charleston, West Virginia—Stonewall Jackson High School and Roosevelt Junior High—decided to experiment with an alternative to out-of-

school suspension by establishing Alternative Learning Centers where students were sent for specified periods of time. The program began in both schools in February of 1978. The Kanawha County Board of Education and the Teacher Corps Youth Advocacy projects at the two schools cooperated in developing the experiment, designed to remove disruptive students temporarily from the socially rewarding aspects of school life.

Major characteristics of the Alternative Learning Program are: (1) it takes place in a controlled setting within a specific room; (2) in each of the major subject areas the education is coordinated with that of the regular curriculum; (3) all social contacts with other students are suspended when a student is confined to the Alternative Learning Center, including access to lunchrooms and lounge areas and participation in school athletic activities; (4) the student earns his way back into the regular school by meeting specific requirements of personal performance.

Assignment to the Alternative Learning Center

Assignment to the Alternative Learning Center follows an established procedure involving the student, the teacher, the student's parents, and the school administrator who is responsible for handling discipline issues:

1) After one or more offenses which singly or collectively require suspension under rules established by the school administration, the student is called to a conference with the appropriate school official. This official discusses with the student the specific charges and reasons for the possible suspension.

2) As soon as possible after the student-administrator conference, the administrator schedules a meeting with the student and the parents. If circumstances warrant their attendance, teachers involved in the case may also be asked to attend this conference.

3) At the conference, the administrator determines whether the alternative of out-of-school suspension will

be offered. The nature, number, and seriousness of the offenses are the determining factors. If the Alternative Learning Program is offered, the administrator thoroughly explains the program's aims and expectations to the student and the parents.

4) If both student and parents accept the Alternative Learning Center Program, an entrance contract is signed to make the agreement formal. (See Exhibit 12 for a sample contract.) The contract is signed by the student, the parents, and the school administrator. Refusal of parent or student to sign the contract means out-of-school suspension, involving appearance of the student and the parents before the appropriate disciplinary group before the student can return to school. Upon election of the Alternative Learning Center program, the administrator informs the student of the place, time, and date for reporting to the Center.

Exhibit 12
Alternative Learning Center Entrance Contract

Student: _____ Grade: 10 11 12 Date: _____

Number of days assigned to the ALC: _____ (Minimum of five)

Reason for referral: _____

Rules:

1. Talking is permitted only after receiving permission from the ALC supervisor.
2. Students must work at all times on appropriate subject matter.
3. Students will be given the opportunity to use the restroom facilities and get a drink at the discretion of the ALC supervisor.
4. Students may not leave their assigned seats until permission is given.
5. Gum chewing is not permitted in the Alternative Learning Center.
6. The reading of private reading material will require permission of the ALC supervisor.
7. School supplies such as pens, pencils, and paper will be furnished by the student. If the student doesn't have the above working implements he or she will be given a demerit.

8. Lunches will be eaten in the ALC. Students may elect to bring a sack lunch or purchase a regular school lunch. No soda or snack items are allowed.
9. In case of illness, the nurse or counselor will come to the ALC; if necessary, the student's parents will be called and the student sent home. A doctor's excuse will be required for readmitting the student to ALC.
10. Alternative Learning Center students are excluded from all school time extracurricular activities and assemblies until ALC time is successfully completed.
11. Students will report to the ALC immediately upon arrival at the school each morning. Demerits will be given for tardiness.
12. Students will exit the school grounds promptly after dismissal from the ALC and not return until the following morning.
13. Students will be placed for 5 CONSECUTIVE days in the ALC. If a student must be absent, he/she must have a doctor's excuse before being readmitted to the ALC.
14. There will be *no* half-day assignments. A student loses the full day credit if one or more class periods are missed during the day.
15. Ben Franklin students will report to the ALC for homeroom no later than 10 minutes after their bus arrives from Ben Franklin Technical Center.
16. While in the ALC, if the teacher recommends dismissal of the student from ALC because of excessive infraction of behavior, the student and teacher are to have a conference with the Vice-Principal, Mr. Barnhart, to reach consensus on expulsion.
17. If suspended from the ALC, the student will *not* be readmitted but will be expelled from school.

Violation of rules will subject the student to additional ALC time. A total of two demerits are allowed. For each additional two demerits, an extra day of ALC will be assigned.

I understand that I must abide by the rules stated in this contract as well as any additional requirements established by the ALC supervisor. Failure to do so may result in additional ALC time or in other disciplinary measures.

Exhibit 12 (continued)

Student's Signature _____

Parent's Signature _____

Vice-Principal's Signature _____

Activities in the Alternative Learning Center

In most cases, the student will report to the Center the morning following the conference with the parents, depending upon the time the administrator needs to notify the student's teachers and the time the teachers need to prepare the necessary materials and assignments. The teacher submits assignments for the ALC student to the counseling office before the start of the first period on the day the student begins the Alternative Learning Center Program. Exhibit 13 is the assignment form. The counselor checks off the assignments as they are submitted, and the completed assignments are returned to the appropriate teacher by the ALC supervisor at the end of each day.

Exhibit 13
Procedure for Written Assignments in ALC

(Please fill out and attach this page to all assignments or materials. *Please* return this form to the counseling office by 8:00 A.M. on_____)
(Date)

Assignments:
1st Day

2nd Day

3rd Day

4th Day

Exhibit 13 (continued)

5th Day

Name: _____ Date: _____

Course: _____ Instructor: _____

1. All work will be done on paper furnished by the student.
2. All work will be neat. Scratched out words, messy papers, and bad penmanship will not be tolerated.
3. All questions and answers will be numbered and a heading included as "Review Questions for Chapter 1, page 23."
4. All written assignments must meet the approval of the ALC supervisor.
5. If written assignment is not completed to the satisfaction of the ALC supervisor, the assignment will be corrected or done over.

Counseling Involvement. The counselor receives a copy of the ALC entrance contract as soon as it is completed. When the student arrives at school, the counselor accompanies the student to the Alternative Learning Center and spends the first period with the student. The counselor is available to help the student deal with any problems during assignment to the Center.

Evaluating Student Performance. Students are evaluated on the basis of their overall performance, including completion of assigned classwork, compliance with the rules stated on the entrance contract, punctuality, and the care taken of study materials and the working area. An evaluation report (Exhibit 14) is filled out for each hourly class period, and the student who receives an affirmative evaluation in all four categories of behavior on the report form earns one merit for that class period, or a possible total of eight merits per day.

Exhibit 14
Alternative Learning Center Evaluation Report

STUDENT'S SIGNATURE: _____ SUPERVISOR'S SIGNATURE: _____

Date: _____ _____ _____ _____ _____

(Place an (x) on the line in each column which correctly answers each statement.)	Monday Yes	Monday No	Tuesday Yes	Tuesday No	Wednesday Yes	Wednesday No	Thursday Yes	Thursday No	Friday Yes	Friday No
1. Completed all classwork in a manner satisfactory to the supervisory personnel.	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_
2. Complied with rules stated on the entrance contract and instructions from ALC supervisors in a courteous manner.	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_
3. Student reported promptly to the ALC room at the time required in the morning and during assigned breaks.	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_
4. Student left his study carrel and area in a clean condition free of paper. The surfaces of tables and study carrels are left free of marks and writings.	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_
Merit Awarded (Please Check)	☐ Yes		☐ Yes		☐ Yes		☐ Yes		☐ Yes	
	☐ No		☐ No		☐ No		☐ No		☐ No	
Student's Initials	_____		_____		_____		_____		_____	
Supervisor's Initials	_____		_____		_____		_____		_____	

Early Exit. Early exit from the Alternative Learning Center is offered as an incentive for the students to do their work properly. After three days, a student who is in the ALC program for the first time can apply for an early exit if he has earned 21 of a possible total of 24 merits. The ALC supervisor provides the student with an application form and verifies the student's performance. The application is submitted to the administrator in charge of discipline for approval or rejection. If the application is approved, the exit interview takes place as soon as it can be arranged.

Not all students can earn early exits, including those assigned for serious offenses and those assigned to the Center for a second time. If a student earned an early exit on previous assignment to the Center, the days not completed on the previous assignment are added to the second assignment. For example, a student who is assigned to the Center for five days earns an early exit after three days, but gets into trouble again. The two unserved days from the first assignment are added to the second assignment.

Extending the Stay. Students are allowed to lose one merit per day during assignment to the Alternative Learning Center. For each merit lost above this number, the student is required to stay at the Center for an extra day. For example, if a student is assigned to the Center for five days and loses seven merits during that time, he will have to serve two more days, or a total of seven days. Merits lost during the additional days assigned would invoke the same rule: Each additional loss of merits over the two permissible would mean an additional day in the Center. Invocation of this rule requires that the supervisory staff notify the administrator and that the administrator notify the parents. Suspension from school is invoked if student performance and behavior do not improve satisfactorily during the assignment to the Alternative Learning Center.

The Re-entry Interview. After satisfactory completion

of work at the Alternative Learning Center, the student and the parents confer with the administrator responsible for discipline before the student returns to the regular classroom. This interview has two purposes: (1) it seeks assurance that the student is aware of the behavioral change that is expected in the regular classroom; (2) it is designed to inform the student of the penalties for failure to comply with school rules and the instructions of teachers and other staff members. It also provides the administrator with an opportunity to commend students who conduct themselves positively in the program.

Effectiveness of the Alternative Learning Center

Teachers and students who were interviewed at Stonewall Jackson High School and Roosevelt Junior High believed in the positive effect of the Alternative Learning Center. More than half the teachers responded that the Center was "serving a useful purpose." Most students said that, even though they worked harder in the Center than in the regular classroom, they would prefer to be sent there rather than home. They believed that the experience made them better students and nearly all said that they would prefer not to have a repeat assignment to the Center.

Some idea of the effect of the Alternative Learning Center at Roosevelt Junior High School is revealed in the following statistics: From September 7, 1977, to February 20, 1978, just before the ALC program was started, a total of 33 students were suspended from school. From February 21 to May 8, a total of 16 students were suspended from school and a total of 40 entered the Alternative Learning Center, cutting out-of-school suspension by more than half. Statistics for attendance during the first three semesters of operation of the Alternative Learning Center at Stonewall Jackson High School, including analysis by sex and race, are presented in Exhibit 15.

Exhibit 15
Student Population of the Alternative Learning Center at Stonewall Jackson High School

Male/Female Ratio by Grade

	Feb.—May 1978			Sept.—March 1978/79		
	Male	*Female*	*Total*	*Male*	*Female*	*Total*
10th	5	9	14	12	8	20
11th	12	5	17	13	11	24
12th	3	2	5	11	1	12
Total	20	16	36	36	20	56

White/Black Ratio

	Feb.—May 1978			Sept.—March 1978/79		
	Male	*Female*	*Total*	*Male*	*Female*	*Total*
White	13	13	26	21	18	39
Black	7	3	10	15	2	17
Total	20	16	36	36	20	56

Repeaters

Spring of 1978 = 1 Fall of 1978 to March of 1979 = 5
Cross-year repeaters = 10

The only reported drawback of the in-school suspension system is the added cost of teachers' salaries and classroom space, often for a small number of students. However, the less tangible costs of wasted student potential, plus the costs to the community of dealing with unsupervised students throughout the school day, would seem to justify the added expense of a teacher and a room.

The academic advantages of in-school suspension are obvious from the foregoing review of the program of the Alternative Learning Center. An even more important advantage is that the school does not perpetuate the student's feelings of alienation by excluding him or her

physically from school. Furthermore, the close cooperation between the Center and the counseling office assures that a large segment of the student population potentially needing counseling is not denied this important supportive service.

Assuring youth participation by denial of social privileges is an effective disciplinary technique, but it can only be applied to students who are aggressively disruptive. What can be done to assure those students who toe the mark that they will have a voice in decisions affecting them? A step toward this goal–one which establishes an important beginning in the development of adult discussion techniques–is teaching students how to become effective listeners and speakers by training them in class discussions. The approach is not for the faint-hearted or for those pedagogical sticklers who will not compromise with rigid parliamentary procedure. Like most beginnings, this training is based on simple exercises. The following is a sampling of the many classroom exercises contained in the manual developed by members of School 101 in Indianapolis and by the Teacher Corps Youth Advocacy staff at Indiana University.

5 TEACHING DISCUSSION SKILLS

Student passivity is the other side of the coin of youth delinquency, for the stifling of self-expression can breed rebellion. The needs of the individual student cannot be satisfied and youth participation in school curricula cannot be insured without effective communication patterns between teachers and students and between the students themselves.

Establishing rapport with a class is a challenge to any teacher, no matter how experienced. At times when new groups of students are forced to co-exist and must become acquainted with each other as well as with a teacher new to them, communication problems are multi-dimensional. Such unsettling conditions are particularly typical of junior high school and account for the high percentage of rebellious and disruptive behaviors associated with students of this age group.

The Teacher Corps Youth Advocacy Project at In-

dianapolis, Indiana, approached the problem of effective communication by developing a manual called "Discussion Skills"[1] to acquaint students with the courtesies required of speaker and listener. The techniques employed are effective both in providing a forum for the expression of student opinion and for controlling autocratic tendencies in the teacher.

Icebreakers

The first step in creating an attitude that a classroom is a "whole working unit" can be achieved through the use of "icebreakers," activities designed to introduce people to each other by focusing on their similarities. Icebreakers are most obviously needed at the beginning of the school year and whenever an established classroom pattern is interrupted, such as at the introduction of formal units of the discussion skills. The Indiana manual lists a total of 27 icebreaking activities concentrating on emotional, intellectual, and physical similarities of students. The following is a brief sampling from the manual.

Name Tags. Students are given blank name tags and the following instructions:

- Write your name.
- Name two things you have done that you are proud of.
- Rank in order of importance to you the values of honesty, loyalty, and generosity.
- Name one thing that frustrates you that you cannot control and one that you can control.
- What is the favorite room in your house?
- Write on the tag an adjective that describes yourself.

[1]The manual was developed jointly by staff members of School 101, Indianapolis, and the Indiana University Teacher Corps Youth Advocacy project under a grant from the U.S. Law Enforcement Assistance Administration. Teachers Mary MacMillan, Deb Ostas, and Carol Stum developed the manual, with Teacher Corps staff member Mary Jane Lippman serving as consultant.

Collage. Have students make a collage of pictures that help describe them—their favorite colors, people, activities, places, and so on.

Introductions. Ask students to introduce themselves to a person near them. Have them interview each other and then ask each to introduce the other to the rest of the class.

If. Ask the students to decide who they would like to be if they could be someone else, and then discuss the choices of preference.

Getting Started

Even after the ice has been broken, it is important to demonstrate to students the need for discussion skills. Inevitably, a successful demonstration will be chaotic, so that the lesson must be very well structured and must also be conducted at a time when the students feel comfortable.

Open the class for discussion of a topic about which students are concerned. Let them discuss the topic without teacher intervention for 10 or 15 minutes, while recording the proceedings on tape. End the discussion and the taping when the frustration level is high.

Play back a particularly noisy section of the tape to demonstrate that when everyone wanted to discuss the topic nothing was accomplished. Help the students to understand why nothing was accomplished. Some probable reasons are:

1) Everyone talked at once.
2) There were side discussions.
3) Some people dominated the conversation.
4) People didn't listen.
5) Some people got mad.
6) Some lost interest because they were not able to participate.
7) Some didn't consider what others said.
8) Some were more concerned with what they were saying than with what others were saying.

Basic Discussion Skills

For teaching purposes, discussion skills are broken into seven units which follow a logical progression. It is not important to teach the whole of a unit at one session. In fact, student comprehension and participation will best be served if the teacher makes certain that each skill is clearly understood by everyone before proceeding with the next one. After the numbered skills in the list that follows are activities to demonstrate each.

1) *Observation*—to teach students to be objective about what they see.

- Stage an argument in front of the class with another teacher or with some member of the class. Carry out the argument energetically so that the class becomes uncomfortable while watching. Afterwards explain that the argument was staged. Ask students to write what they saw.
- Show a film, any colorful film but preferably one without words. Ask students to write down what they saw in the film. Show the film again. Have students list anything they missed in the first viewing.
- Show the class a picture for three minutes. Then cover the picture and ask each student to list three colors, ten objects, and three feelings that they saw in the picture. Uncover the picture and discuss their observations.

2) *Objectivity*—to teach students to observe without being influenced by their feelings.

- Divide a section of the chalkboard into four columns, heading each column with the name of an emotion such as love, hate, fear, happiness, etc. Invite the class to suggest words that evoke each emotion, writing the words in the appropriate columns. Ask for a discussion of how spoken words can make a listener react.
- Ask each student to list ten very emotional words.
- Ask students to read a story and underline all emo-

tionally charged words. Ask them to make a list of the words and to indicate which emotion each word connotes.

- Rewrite a newspaper article, using emotionally charged words. Read the article and the rewritten version to the class and discuss how and why the articles are different.
- Read to the class an editorial and a news article on the same topic. Ask students to discuss the differences in purpose and in tone.

3) *Reporting*—to teach students to become good reporters.

- Divide the class into groups of three and give each group member a different story to read silently. Each group member tells the "who, what, where, when, why, and how" of his story to the two other members of the group. One member from each group tells the whole class about one of the stories.
- Divide the class into groups of three and give each group member a different story to read silently. Each group member tells the "who, what, where, when, why, and how" of his story to the two other members of the group. One member from each group tells the whole class about one of the stories.
- Show the class a film which does not contain too many facts. Divide the class into groups. Ask students to write down the "who, what, where, when, why, and how" of the film. Ask one student from each group to report to the class on what the group decided.

4) *Recording*—to help students learn to record information accurately.

- Divide the class into small groups. Give each student a copy of a paragraph and have him or her write down the main idea of the paragraph.
- After students read a fictional story, have them pick

one non-human character from it and write a report having the character explain what happened.

- Cut paragraphs from old books or magazines. Paste the paragraphs on cardboard. Write the main ideas from the paragraphs on separate sheets of paper. Pass out the main ideas and the paragraphs at random. Ask students to match the main ideas to the paragraphs.

5) *Listening*—to help students to listen attentively to others.

- Ask each student to state a personal opinion. It can be something as simple as "I think television shows are too violent." Ask other students, chosen at random, to explain what the person said.
- Read a story in class. Ask ten questions about details. Check the answers in class.
- Tape record household sounds. Play the tape in class and ask students to identify the sounds.
- With the class seated in a circle, whisper a sentence in one student's ear and have him whisper the same message to the next student until all have relayed the message. Ask the last person to write the message on the chalkboard, and then write the original message. Discuss why the message changed.
- Play a popular song and ask students to write the words from listening to it.
- Give oral instructions on making birds from paper. Do not demonstrate. See how well students can do the assignment from oral directions only.
- Construct two puzzles of identical shapes. Color the pieces differently. Put the pieces of one into an envelope and glue the other puzzle together onto a cardboard back. Ask for two volunteers, one of whom will explain to the other how to reassemble the puzzle in the envelope. The assembler may ask no questions for three minutes. If the puzzle is not assembled by that time, questions and answers can be exchanged. Because colors are different in the two puzzles, the students will

have trouble. At the end, emphasize the need for both the sender and the listener to use vivid words as well as to ask questions in order to communicate.

6) *Questioning Irrelevant Remarks*—to help students learn to distinguish remarks or comments that do not belong in the discussion.

- Present a picture containing four items. Three items are related and one is not. Ask students to determine which item does not belong.
- Make a worksheet showing irrelevant comments in conversations. For example, on the subject of honesty in politics, ask students to cross out one of the following remarks which they consider irrelevant:

1. "I think that all politicians should take lie detector tests to see if they are honest."
2. "My uncle was a politician."
3. "Voters should vote out anyone who is not honest."

Suggestion: In this exercise, both teacher and students should be careful not to ridicule anyone. The purpose is to make sure that what is said relates to the topic and appropriate comments are "How does that relate to the subject?" or "I'm not sure of the point you are trying to make."

7) *Participation*—to help students learn to participate effectively in a discussion by observing appropriate etiquette and exercising courtesy to others. This lesson is best introduced by a lecture, since that avoids creating a situation in which the students fear to do something wrong out of ignorance. Highlights of the lecture are listed below. In some instances suggested exercises follow major topics, indicating that mini-lectures on these points may be appropriate.

- *Personal attacks.* Criticize ideas, not personalities. Fights result from criticism of personalities and they hinder progress. Certain remarks put other people on the

defensive and reflect poorly on the speaker. Ask the students how they feel when they hear statements such as the following:

1. "You don't know what you're talking about."
2. "You're not using common sense."
3. "You dummy, who told you that?"
4. "You're trying to be 'bad.' "
5. "That's stupid!"

• *Recognizing hindrances,* such as: aggression (seeking status by criticizing others), blocking (stopping progress by getting off the subject), domination (refusing to let others speak or take part), clowning (disrupting by fooling around or joking), competing (hampering group discussions by competing with others to produce the best ideas), withdrawing (refusing to participate), and interruption (breaking up the discussion and preventing active listening).

1. When you want to say something, let three people speak first. This keeps everyone from speaking too much.
2. Use a stop and go sign to stop and start a person who is speaking. Appoint a police officer to give "tickets" to those who interrupt.

• *Gatekeeping to seek full participation.* Examples of nonverbal cues are: leaning forward, opening mouth as if to say something, making eye contact with the person speaking, moving around in seat. Check the group periodically to see if everyone is participating. Someone may say, "I don't think everyone is getting a chance to speak." An exercise: Divide the class into groups of three. Give each group a card with an emotional word on it, such as angry, sad, happy, confused, confident. Ask the group to demonstrate the word by using motions and expressions but no words.

• *Shared leadership.* Emphasize that everyone has the responsibility: (1) to control the group, (2) to keep on the

topic, and (3) to prevent one person from monopolizing a discussion.

- *Talk to the group, not the teacher.*
- *Recognize agreement and disagreement,* emphasizing that while there will not always be agreement, disagreements should not stop the discussion. As an exercise, read a very controversial story or poem. Explore with the class what it contains that everyone or almost everyone can *agree* on and what everyone *disagrees* with.
- *Acknowledge others' ideas* by asking them questions and asking for their opinions, by praising their contributions, by saying that you understand, or by paraphrasing what they have said.
- *Consensus* should be defined as *less than* total agreement. It means accepting or not objecting strongly to what is said. A consensus is usually asked for procedural statements, such as: "Can we all agree to limit our discussion to the effects of nuclear waste?"
- *Silence* is not undesirable in a discussion since it gives everyone a chance to organize his or her thoughts.

1. Give the students a list of instructions orally, very quickly. The instructions must have a logical sequence. After giving the instructions, ask students to silently organize their thoughts. Ask someone to repeat the instructions.
2. Have a "silence contest" to see who can remain silent the longest.
3. Show a fast action film. Ask students to organize the facts silently and then repeat them to the class.

- *Clarification* is essential to intelligent discussion. Emphasize the need to ask about anything which is not understood. Go over the material to be discussed so that everyone understands the object of the discussion.

1. Show a film in which a conversation results in confusion. Have the class discuss how the way a person speaks can cause clarification problems.

2. Have students read an ambiguous speech or statement. Ask them to write questions that could help clarify the meaning.
3. Have the students use a thesaurus to find words that have the same meaning.
4. Ask one student to make a statement and another to rephrase that same statement for the class.

LOOKING TO THE FUTURE

Efforts to make schools more egalitarian so that they can better serve societal needs have resulted in the many recommendations for reform outlined in the second part of this book. The improvement of teachers and other educational personnel, both through preservice selection and training and through inservice training, is pervasive in all the recommendations. Teacher Corps exists in recognition of the necessity of training teachers to better meet the needs of a low-income, culturally diverse population, and to serve the function of catalyst to encourage organizations and institutions to reform themselves. The practical steps toward reform described in the third part of this book are evidence, however scant it may seem in the light of so many recommendations, that the Youth Advocacy projects of Teacher Corps are addressing their task by taking the first steps toward reform.

Beyond urging that teachers serving our youth can and should receive better qualitative training, what other factors do these recommendations have in common? Perhaps weighing their merits, reconciling contradictions or seeming contradictions, and assessing the modification of educational philosophy implied in im-

plementing these reforms will demonstrate areas of successful activity of the Teacher Corps Youth Advocacy projects and neglected areas worthy of future attention. In broad terms, the recommendations seem to share the following emphases:

1) A recurring theme among the recommendations is greater involvement of schools with the communities which they serve. The Safe School Study was immediately concerned with this in assessing the relationship between school discipline problems and actual and potential crime and violence. Three of its eighteen recommendations urge school/community involvement (Exhibit 1, items 5, 16, and 17). In recommending collaborative decision-making and coordination of school and community activities (Exhibit 3), the Urban High School Reform Initiative emphasized the same theme.

2) Parental involvement in school activities is closely related with community involvement. The Children's Defense Fund study, *Children Out of School in America*, particularly concerned itself with parental involvement in decisions regarding suspension and urged parents to challenge "school policies which exclude children from school." The latter implies education of parents regarding the rights of their children to schooling.

3) Personalization of the education process, a recurring theme in Youth Advocacy activities, is perhaps most unilaterally recommended. The items in the second category of the Safe School Study recommendations (Exhibit 1, items 6 through 13, especially 11) are all concerned with humanizing and personalizing the school climate. The RISE Report emphasizes this in stressing "the learner as the primary client of the school" whose preferences should be recognized and whose needs for counseling should be served. Concerned with "societal circumstances that push or pull potentially talented young people out of the educational stream at too early an age," the Carnegie Council supports both vocational

training and freedom of choice regarding school attendance after a student is sixteen years of age, with extension of school concerns to opening job markets to youth.

4) Closely related to the personalization of the educational process is the recommendation of offering courses which secondary school students consider relevant. The Safe School Study (Exhibit 1, item 12) associates lack of relevance in the curriculum with apathy and violence in school. The RISE Report also recommends that learners have "an increased range of choices," and the Carnegie Council *(Giving Youth a Better Chance)* frankly embraces vocational training. In summarizing diverse learning environments (Exhibit 3), the Urban High School Reform Initiative recommends both diversified curricula and flexibility of site for special classes, reinforcing the concept of career training.

With so many recommendations for school reform in the 1970's, categorization could go on endlessly. We have not even attempted to analyze the reports' suggestions for improving teachers and broadening the range of their skills. But closer examination of the four categories we have isolated in broad outline may tell us something about the direction of the activities described in this book.

Since a major emphasis of the Youth Advocacy Loop is on interagency coordination, its efforts directly address the problem of cooperation between school and community. The five programs described go beyond cooperation to collaboration. A positive score in this area of recommended activity is hardly cause for relaxation of intensity, since the Loop exists to add this dimension to the aggregate of Teacher Corps activities. In the dissemination of strategies it has developed the Loop must capitalize upon new opportunities to involve itself with the broadest possible range of community agencies.

The involvement of parents in the educational process warrants close examination. Do the exemplars described in the preceding section of this book involve parents

directly or by extension? Parental involvement described in the exemplars is confined to discipline questions: Atlanta's Administrative University did result in the compilation of a handbook specifically for parents to acquaint them with the rules and regulations of the Atlanta Public School System; the protocol described for admission and release of students from Charleston's Alternative Learning Centers was explicit in its involvement of the disciplined child's parents. Denver's Human Interaction Skills was a step toward acquainting children with the normal problems of sibling rivalry for parental attention.

Perhaps the issue of parental involvement could be attacked more positively. Recommendations imply the need for less passivity of parents under some conditions of student suspension, possibly the establishment of a routine to alert Youth Advocacy project schools to the need for intervention. Another area for positive action could lie in a program to acquaint parents with the rights of students who are threatened with or experience (in kind or degree) exclusion from public schools.

Personalization of the educational process, the third of the categories of recommendations, represents another area of Youth Advocacy concentration and achievement. Each of the exemplars described deals with this problem with characteristic vigor. The close relationship between personalization and teacher mastery of counseling techniques is evident, as reflected by the emphasis of the exemplars. While establishing formal inservice programs of training in counseling, such as the Maine I-CARE program, is one of the most direct attacks on the problem of personalization, it is also one of the most difficult of attainment. In recommending additional research on adolescence, the Urban High School Reform Initiative (Exhibit 3) pinpointed site-specific school libraries as "repositories of the most current educational research." Stocking school libraries with counseling materials, maintaining them well, and thereby attracting

teachers to utilize library resources is a logical and practical extension of efforts toward personalization through application of counseling techniques.

The last of the categories of recommendations, that involving creation of "relevant" curricula, is probably the most important, the most challenging, and the most deserving of attention by youth advocates. We are called upon to explore the autocratic assumption of adult superiority in assessing the needs of youth. Supplementing textbooks with newspapers and magazines to teach such basic subjects as mathematics and language skills is a legitimate device, as is offering a larger or smaller number of elective courses which will satisfy, at the least, the disciplinary requirements of supervised activity.

Courses designed to acquaint students with skills which will serve them vocationally or avocationally provide an obvious solution to the relevancy questions. At best it is an ambivalent solution to the issue of personalization of education. By concentrating on specific aspects of personal promise in a child—be they ever so humble—skill training may deprive that child of other exposure which will stimulate latent potentials.

How seriously the democratic aspects of curriculum development are regarded can be tested by a realistic assessment of the efforts any Teacher Corps project is making to record and tabulate youth preferences and suggestions and by what is done with the resultant tabulations. If they are serving as file fodder, if they are never subjected to judicial review by teachers and administrators, an important aspect of youth involvement in education and in the process of socialization is being ignored.

Further efforts in exploring curriculum relevancy could involve the parents, who should be offered an opportunity for positive input beyond backstopping school-initiated disciplinary measures. What do parents want their children to learn? What are they prepared to

reinforce in the home environment? Can parents be educated to elevate their standards and their aspirations for their children? Focusing upon the spectrum of parental concerns, however confining the range may seem, is the first tangible step in analyzing what modern society expects and demands school training to provide to youth.

Among the foregoing project exemplars, the discussion skills developed in Indianapolis most directly invites student input. If the challenge of serving the needs of an egalitarian society is to be met, if the focus of the school is to be kept on the learner as the primary client and meeting societal needs as the primary objective, the issue of relevant curricula must be met head on. In this crucible the concept of an egalitarian system of education can truly be refined if it is well served by youth advocates.

A workbook introducing teachers to a broad spectrum of philosophies of education and aiding them in selecting classroom management plans to fit their needs was developed by Horace M. Leake and his associates at the Stockton, California, Unified School District. Entitled "What's Your Classroom Management Plan?," it could not be abridged satisfactorily for inclusion in this volume. Some idea of the comprehensiveness of the workbook may be evident from its bibliography. In the hope that this bibliography will be a valuable reference tool in itself, it is reproduced here.

APPENDIX

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